THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS: A THEORETICAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

The research reported in this paper studies the relationship of three independent variables, namely; experience, training, and methods, to eleven environmental dimensions of the school. These dimensions fall into three general socialization categories, namely; (1) students' formal subenvironment (containing five dimensions), (2) students' informal subenvironment (containing two dimensions), and (3) the teachers' subenvironment (containing four dimensions).

The sample (N=55) was drawn from twenty-three Newfoundland schools and included thirty beginning teachers who were matched with twenty-five experienced teachers. A questionnaire type of instrument was administered to all subjects for data gathering purposes.

The analysis of the data resulted in the following findings. New teachers experienced no more problems per dimension than experienced teachers. In fact, new teachers experienced fewer problems in two areas; (1) the student opportunity to learn dimension ($p<.01$), and (2) the student academic involvement

dimension ($p<.005$). Training was related significantly to the 'student authority dimension' only ($p<.05$), with internship students experiencing fewer problems than non-internship students. It was also found that interns experienced more difficulties in relation to 'opportunities and encouragement to learn' their new role, although the findings were not statistically significant ($p<.07$).[1] Regarding teaching methods, activity oriented teachers experienced fewer problems in the 'students' socialization environment'. Acceptable levels of significance were found in the 'student reinforcement dimension', 'the student identification dimension', and the 'student academic involvement dimension' ($p<.01$ in each case). In the 'teachers' socialization environment', however, activity oriented teachers generally experienced more problems than their passively oriented counterparts.

A review of the literature yielded very little knowledge about where beginning teachers seek help in their new environment. Consequently, for exploratory purposes, twenty-nine items on the questionnaire

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[1] accepted level of significance .05

contained a section requesting teachers to indicate what they considered to be most helpful for that particular problem area. Basically no help was sought in the 'students' socialization environment' in most instances. In the 'teachers' socialization environment', principals, vice-principals and other teachers provided most of the help. Teachers seem to find education courses most beneficial in the areas relating to curriculum and student evaluation.

It is concluded, from the findings of the present study, that beginning teachers are generally well educated and adequately trained to cope with the difficulties inherent in their new role.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

One of the basic assumptions about the nature of the school as an organization, according to Bidwell (1973, p.973), is that it is a "client-serving organization, specifically concerned with the moral and technical socialization of the young". In other words the school functions as a service to the adult population, socializing the young to become acceptant and conforming to the mores and traditions of the majority group. Subsequently they will be in a position to take their places alongside their elders as responsible adult associates. In addition to fostering this compliant behaviour the school also functions as a vocational institute (instructing and maintaining standards in basic skills relevant to the content of the programme or the subject matter to be learned).

Responsibility for this socialization of students is allocated to the role of the teacher. Within this role means can be used to socialize them in morally desirable directions. For example, the teacher is at liberty to use the resources of the curriculum to maintain or to change the behaviours of children in the classroom. This notion of the socialization process within the school is analogous

to the socialization process which takes place within the home.

A recognized authority on the process of student socialization is Benjamin S. Bloom (1964) who has posited that parents have three forces within their control which can be used to manipulate children, namely: (1) stimuli; (2) reinforcement; and (3) encouragement. These three components affect the development of general intelligence as:

> 1. Stimulation provided in the environment for verbal development
>
> 2. Extent to which affection and reward are related to verbal-reasoning accomplishments
>
> 3. Encouragement of active interaction with problems, exploration of the environment, and the learning of new skills.
>
> (Bloom 1964, p.190)

The emphasis here, in Bloom's theory on learning, is not on the personality characteristics of the parents, or the particular socio-economic aspects of the home, but rather on <u>what</u> the parents do and <u>how</u> they do it. This is contrary to traditional social theory based on class and status which emphasizes what the parents <u>are</u> by means of indicators such as the level of education of the mother or the father, and/or the amount of income. Of course, it is recognized that characteristics, when measured by these indicators are positively correlated with numerous educational behaviours, for example; cognitive, affective and connative.

However, when the type of treatment administered to the child is controlled the effects of these characteristics are reduced to the point where a spurious relationship exists. Therefore, because of the importance of treatments, Bloom indicates that they constitute the environment. He defines environments as

> the conditions, forces, and external stimuli which impinge upon the individual ... a network of forces and factors which surround, engulf, and play on the individual.
>
> (Bloom 1964, p.187)

The total environment is seen as being made up of a set of interlocking subenvironments, termed dimensions, which have different effects on different human characteristics (Williams 1976; Keeves, Marjoribanks and Williams 1977). Since these dimensions are under the control of the parents in the home and the teachers at school it is possible to measure the effects of the environment on the children.

Bijou (1971) in keeping with this notion of social learning studied the effects of family environments on cognitive development. He notes that

> the intellectually accelerated child is ... one with a history characterized by a preponderance of conditions which foster the development of extensive repertories of cognitive behavior. Among these conditions are: ... (2) availability of stimuli for cognitive learning; and (3) high saturation of interactions with parents, teachers, and others who place a high value on cognitive achievement -- (a) those who arrange contingencies for effective cognitive learning and (b) those who provide schedules of positive reinforcement which maintain the cognitive behaviors acquired.
>
> (Bijou 1971, p.233)

In terms of the socializing environment of the school, it has been established that the role of the teacher is to 'socialize', and that the socializing takes place within an organization, namely; the school. However, it appears that the environment, while being recognized as important (Dewey 1938; Bloom 1964; Bijou 1971; Williams 1976) has nevertheless been a neglected area in research studies. Social scientists are either unable to characterize them or else fail to do so (Schulman 1970). And, in reviewing literature on home environments, Williams (1974) suggests that the larger portion of it is fragmented and lacking in theoretical cohesion. This latter statement applies as well to school environments. It is hardly surprizing then to find that research in the area of the problems of beginning teachers suffers from this same lack of cohesiveness and comprehensiveness.

Because the teacher's role necessitates socializing the young into particular modes of behaviour, thus getting them on the inside of cognitive structures, it would seem only logical that problems would be related to the role through the environment. But, in order to identify the problems one must be able to structure the role, and ideally in a theoretical and non-arbitrary manner. By using Bloom's theoretical scheme the role of the teacher can be perceived from the perspective of the dimensions of the environment, and problems can then be identified and classified based on

a more solid theoretical foundation and fewer arbitrary assumptions.

The bulk of the literature addressing the beginning teacher tends to concentrate on personality characteristics to the virtual exclusion of classroom environmental considerations. There is also a degree of arbitrariness in identifying the problems of new teachers. For example, a literature review conducted by the researcher prior to the immediate study revealed approximately sixteen problems which are experienced in varying degrees of difficulty by the beginner. Those most often cited were, (1) discipline; (2) idealism versus realism; (3) insecurity about self; (4) school policies; (5) student evaluations; (6) methods of teaching; and (7) materials and resources. While these seven items were rated the top-ranking problems it is difficult to make study comparisons relative to the significance of any one problem. This is due to the absence of agreed upon terminology pertaining to the concepts. For example, 'discipline', while it appears to be a universal problem for the beginner, it does not necessarily occupy first place. It ranked third place in Broadbent and Cruickshank's study (June, 1964); first place in Dropkin and Taylor's study (June, 1963); and did not place at all in Murphy and Priebe's report (May, 1974). The possibility of non-ranking in the latter report is assumed to be due to the fact that these authors were concerned with vocational educators who are presumably dealing with a more mature

clientele. But, because of the arbitrariness in operationalizing the problems, what may be included as a 'discipline' problem in one study may rightly be included as 'insecurity about self' in another. One method to avoid this problem with terminology and the resultant effects has been suggested by Broadbent and Cruickshank (1965). They have put forth the idea of standardizing an instrument which could be used for studying and following-up recent graduates. This would also facilitate in making comparisons of studies. An alternative method would be to look at the problems of the new teacher from a theoretical framework; for example, social learning theory.

This theory suggests that learning occurs through paired associations of stimuli and response. After learning, the probability of a particular kind of response can be predicted based on the presentation of certain stimuli. The rewarding of desired responses during the learning period is a crucial factor. Briefly, in order to learn the person must want something (drive), notice something (stimuli), do something (response), and get something (reward) (Miller and Dollard 1941).

To employ this method the subenvironments of the school would have to be identified in keeping with the principles of learning theory. Subsequently, this would lead to ascertaining which dimensions are most problematic for the beginning teacher. This alternative method will form the core of the present study.

Another area which seems to be neglected in 'the problems of the beginning teacher' research is that of comparative study, in which the problems of new teachers are compared to those of seasoned teachers. One of the questions which needs to be addressed is, "To what extent are the problems of new teachers unique to new teachers?". The possibility exists that problems which are encountered by new teachers are no different from those encountered by teachers who have been in the role for a number of years.

Research on beginning teachers in Newfoundland is very limited. Only one study (Wright 1975) was found. Beginning elementary teachers who graduated from Memorial University during 1973-74 formed the sample. Contrary to his preconceived ideas which were based on literature reviews and discussions with local teachers prior to his study, Wright found only a small percentage of teachers encountering problems. The most significant problem areas were working conditions, methods, and discipline.

Purpose of the Study

Previous research and literature addressing the problems of new teachers have been informative and valuable, particularly in terms of recommendations for further study. However, in some aspects it has been inadequate; for example, the operationalizing of the problems has seldom been done in a theoretical and non-arbitrary manner, and few comparisons of

beginning teachers with experienced teachers have been made. Also, our knowledge of new teachers within the Newfoundland context is very limited. Therefore, the present study has been designed bearing these considerations in mind, and concentrating on the following purposes:

1. The role of the teacher will be viewed from the perspective of environmental dimensions of the classroom, because more important than the personality characteristics of the teacher within the teaching role are the treatments administered to the children.

2. Following Bloom's ideas, the school environment will be classified into dimensions and a learning theory perspective adopted. This will enable the identification and categorization of the problems of the new teacher in a non-arbitrary and theoretical manner.

3. While the problems of new teachers are considered to be acute, the topic has received little research attention in Newfoundland. It is hoped, therefore, that the present study will fill some of this gap.

4. In addition to identifying the problems of the new teacher in relation to the experienced teacher, an attempt will be made to ascertain where the teachers seek help to alleviate their problems.

Summary: Schools are socializing agencies employing teachers in the role of socializers. Following the social learning theory as put forth by Bloom and others, the teacher is in a position to change the behaviours of children in the classroom along morally desirable directions. Research on environments, both home and school environments, have ranged from sparse to non-existant; and that which does exist often appears to be of a fragmentary and atheoretical

nature. Also, the same situation applies to studies relating to the problems of new teachers. They too tend to be of an atheoretical nature and lacking in comprehensiveness. It is also difficult to ascertain whether the assumed problems of the new teacher are problems as well for the seasoned teacher due to a lack of research in the area. Further, at the local level; with the exception of one study; the beginning teacher seems to have been overlooked. The present study attempts to fill some of the gap left by other related studies, and in so doing considers four purposes.

Chapter II contains the theory which has been postulated based on the principles of social learning theory. Chapter III is mainly a review of the relevant literature on the topic of 'beginning teachers'. Following this, Chapter IV contains a discussion of the methodology used in the present study, i.e. the sample, measurement of the variables, and the type of analysis. A detailed discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter V. Included in Chapter VI are the conclusions of the immediate study as well as a summary and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

THEORY

The School Environment

The school environment is being examined to ensure that the problems focused upon in this study are not arbitrarily selected but rather are those which are central to the role of the beginning teacher. It is postulated that the total school environment is made up of three subenvironments. Two of these focus on the student and will be referred to as the informal, peer-dominated subenvironment; and the formal, teacher-dominated environment. The third is concerned with the socialization of the teacher and represents the teacher's working environment.

Following Beebe and Fägerlind (1978) the formal, teacher-dominated environment is seen as consisting of five possible dimensions: (1) the opportunity to learn, (2) the encouragement to learn, (3) the reinforcement practices used by the teacher to modify students' behaviours, (4) authority structure or the extent to which the teacher actually dominates the classroom, and (5) the language level used in instruction.

Following Clark and Trow (1966) the informal, peer-dominated environment is seen as consisting of two dimensions; namely, (1) the extent to which the student identifies with the school, and (2) the degree to which the student is involved in the academic life of the school.

The teacher's socialization environment is made up of the following dimensions: (1) the opportunity to learn and to develop professionally within the new role, (2) the encouragement to learn, (3) the reinforcement practices used by the principal, administrators, supervisors and other teachers to modify the new teacher's behaviours, and (4) the authority structure or the extent to which the teacher controls the instructional procedures and curriculum contents as well as other aspects of the classroom. An illustration of the classification of the school environment is provided in figure 2.1.

The formal subenvironment

Five dimensions of the formal subenvironment have been identified. Due to the lack of theoretically grounded research dealing with environments, it is understood that those chosen for this study do not necessarily constitute the totality of possible dimensions.

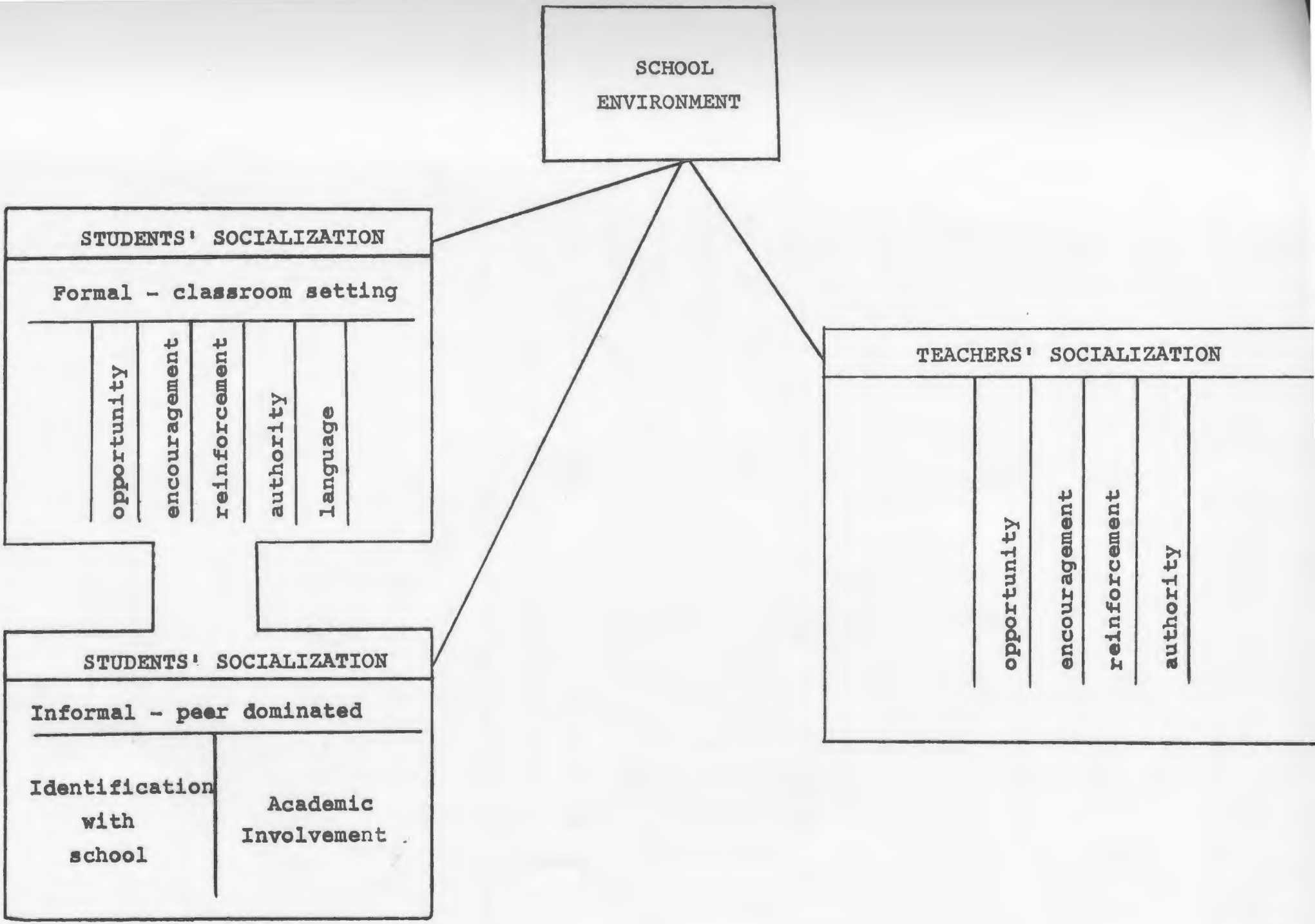


Figure 2.1: DIMENSIONS OF THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Opportunity to learn

As part of their role, teachers are required to provide structured opportunities for students to practice the content of the subject-matter which makes up the academic programme. However, the quantity and quality of such opportunities would necessarily vary between teachers and possibly between students. In testing related hypotheses (Husén 1967) it was found that students' opportunities to learn the material contributed considerably to the variation between countries in mathematic achievement scores. Results of the same study also indicate a positive relationship between participation in special opportunities offered students and achievement.

However, paralleling the opportunity to learn is the notion of the prerequisites for the learning task. If the student enters the grade level without having acquired the necessary prerequisites, or if he lacks the cognitive readiness for the task, then the opportunity to learn may have little tangible effect on the intended learning outcome. Linked with this idea of the prerequisites is Bloom's (1976, p.33-34) notion of the availability of the prerequisite. It is not only necessary that the student be previously exposed to the prerequisite but also that he be able to remember the information required to begin a new level of learning.

Encouragement to learn

Teacher support and encouragement, while being closely allied with the opportunity to learn, are nevertheless discrete components within the assigned role. Since the discretion of the teacher is playing a part it would be naive to ignore the possibility that the quality and quantity of support and encouragement would vary between students. Linked with this notion as well would be the expectations which teachers hold for certain students. Considerable research has been conducted in this area and evidence exists to the effect that children achieve at levels in keeping with the expectations that teachers hold for them (Rosenthal and Jacobson 1968; Rist 1970; Finn 1972). Unfortunately, these expectations oftentimes correlate more highly with noncognitive traits rather than cognitive traits. Possibly it is easier to be supportive of the well-mannered, well-dressed child but what an injustice to his physically, less well-endowed counterpart.

'Encouragement' and 'expectation of performance' were dimensions included in Williams' (1976) study when he researched the family environments of children. One of his findings was that environmental conditions conducive to motivation to achieve are not necessarily conducive to success. The possibility is always there of giving too much encouragement which in turn builds up pressure in the child

and becomes threatening. The child's achievement is thereby inhibited and the tactic of encouragement has backfired. Since this is possible in the home environment it is assumed that the possibility also exists in the school environment. But, more important for the purposes of the present study is the possible source of frustration for the teacher which this dimension can produce. An accepted assumption is that one of the objectives of the school is to help each child to fulfil his potential, and when this is not occurring a strain may be put on the teacher. Consequently, to avoid trying to tap how this dimension is problematic for the new teacher would constitute a void.

Reinforcement structure

Learning by action has been replaced in the school environment with learning through a medium, a teacher. As such the teacher has three bases of formal authority, (1) legitimate power, or the right to influence; (2) reward power, or the right to give rewards; and (3) coercive power, or the power to punish. Using this authority the teacher is in a position to change the behaviours of the children in any direction. Variation over time in the effectiveness of given reinforcers on particular individuals has been pointed out by Bandura and Walters (1963).

Deprivation and satiation effects play an important role in the amount of influence any reinforcers will have on children. The teacher has therefore to be in tune with the needs of the child at particular times and stages in life in order to select the most appropriate reinforcers. Since response patterns which are encouraged at one level of child development will be inappropriate at another stage; the socialization process as conducted by the teacher will constantly necessitate the use of modification.

The value of reinforcement techniques has been pointed out by Bijou (1971) and Williams (1974) in their work on family environments. In suggesting the family environment effects on cognitive development, Bijou (1971) points out that the intellectually accelerated child is one who has parents who provide contingencies for cognitive learning, as well as providing positive reinforcement schedules to maintain the acquired cognitive behaviours.

Therefore, because of the crucial role which reinforcement patterns play in learning and socialization it is likely to be a source of problems for the new teacher.

Authority structure

Within the formal structure of the classroom the power of the teacher resides in the authority of the teacher's

role. However, a necessary component of this authority structure is for the majority of the students to accept and recognize the rights of the teacher to wield power (French and Raven 1959; Katz and Kahn 1966). Where the teacher is seen as illegitimate a possible result can be a difficult classroom with the teacher spending considerable time on establishing authority.

Researchers (Lewin, Lippitt and White 1939; Schmuck and Schmuck 1975) have shown that when students have some degree of control, as for example input into decision-making, they are likely to be cooperative and to exercise responsibility in their actions. Conversely, holding on tightly to authority can lead to friction and tension, hence problems for the teacher.

Language level of instruction

The primary mode of communication within the classroom is verbal language, yet the fact that it is taken for granted goes without question. Bulcock and Beebe (1976) and Bulcock (1977) found language to be the single most important variable on intellectual performance when looking at its effects on a variety of achievements in the content area. Since language is so important to the content of the curriculum, and the content vital to the role of the teacher, it follows that a necessity prevails for the

student to be able to understand the language of the teacher. Yet it is not uncommon for students to indicate that the level of instruction is beyond their understanding. It is quite possible for the teacher to use words and meanings which are foreign to the students. This point can be particularly acute where the teacher and the students have different socio-economic backgrounds. Considerable research has been conducted on the relationship between language and social class (Bernstein 1960; Hess and Shipman 1965; Bereiter 1966). A general conclusion can be drawn to the effect that middle-class children have a more heightened sensitivity to language. They tend to use a more complex sentence structure compared to their lower-class counterparts who use short, simple sentences with limited use of adverbs and adjectives.

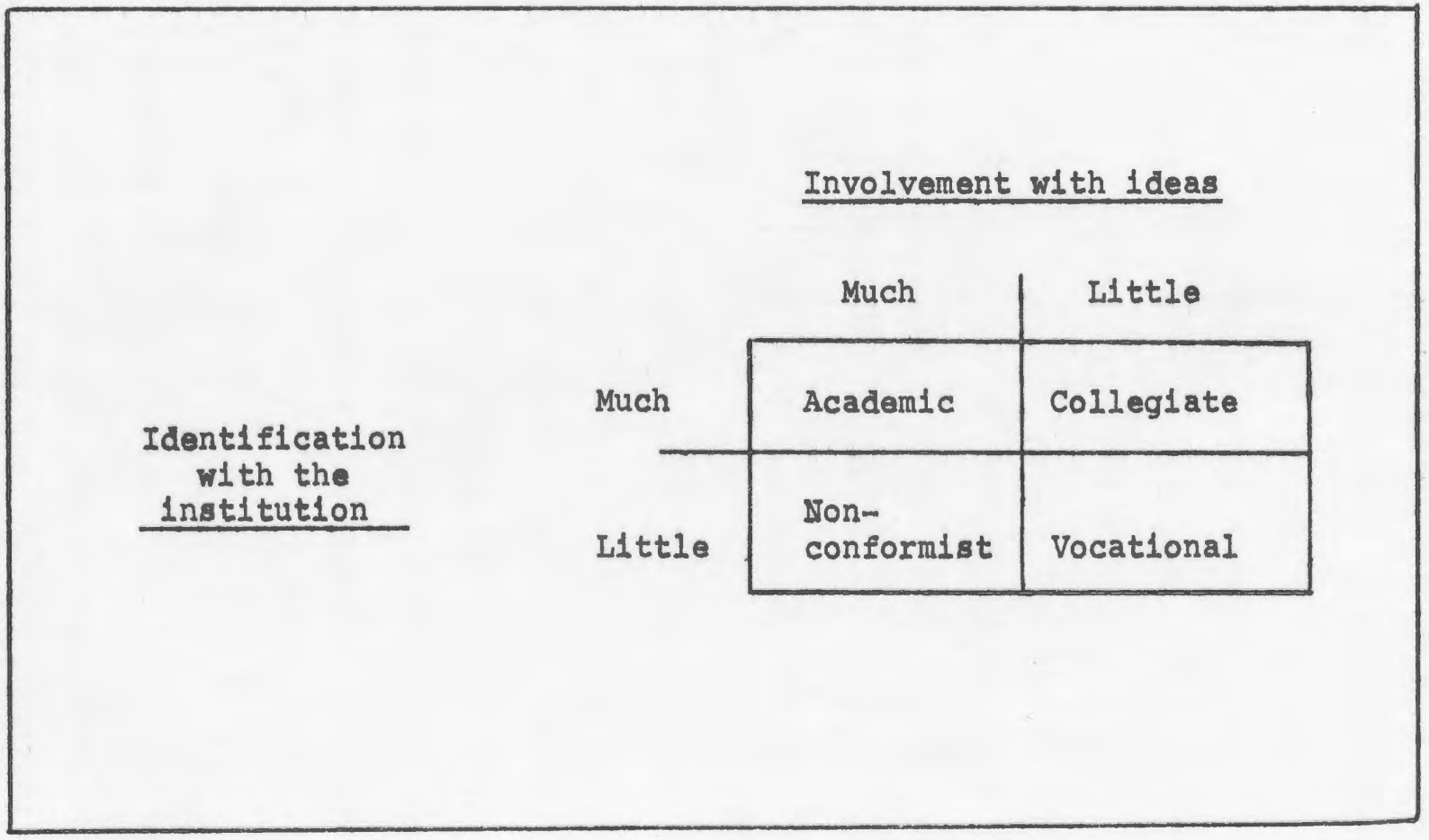
The quality of instruction, which includes the cues or directions provided to the learner by the teacher, has been given considerable attention by Bloom (1976). He notes that

> cues must be understood or comprehended if the student is to make use of them in his learning. It is likely that cues which are easily understood in one form by some students may need to be expressed in other ways before they become meaningful to other students.
>
> (Bloom 1976, p.116)

Consequently the teacher should be able to provide cues or directions in varying forms from verbal to nonverbal and in keeping with the backgrounds of the students in order to maximally ensure comprehension.

The informal subenvironment

Following Clark and Trow's (1966) notions of the informal environment of the school, two dimensions have been identified and have been argued to be the most significant relative to the subcultures, namely; (1) identification with the school, and (2) the amount of academic involvement. The two-dimensional model they have constructed which identifies four types of subcultures can be seen in figure 2.2. The birth and significance of the peer orientated subculture has occurred for various reasons. A generation gap has developed because adolescents and adults no longer engage in meaningful activities designed to socialize the young into the adult, economic world (Coleman 1961; Husén 1974, 1975). Modern society has relegated to the school the major portion of the responsibility for the acquisition of job skills, a task for which, according to Coleman (1961), the schools are not adequately equipped. Nevertheless, it requires children to remain in school for longer periods of time to complete their formal education, thus enhancing the student role.



(Newcomb and Wilson 1966, p.24)

Figure 2.2: A TOPOLOGY OF STUDENT SUBCULTURES

Contradictory findings have been reported in research designed to study the effects of the adolescent subculture on academic achievement. Coleman (1960, 1961) does not see the peer group contributing to academic achievement because it is not valued by them. This is particularly crucial for girls since they tend to hide their intellectual capabilities for fear of not being popular. And, for boys, according to Coleman (1961) athletic participation is of prime importance in order to be a member of the in-crowd. On the other hand, in a study by Schafer and Armer (1968) participation in sports was correlated with achievement. The grades of athletes were better than the grades of non-athletes, school drop-out rate was lower, and the athletes had higher aspirations for college. Research by Rehberg (1969) and Spady (1970) lend support to this notion as well.

Because of the contrary ideas on the importance of the adolescent peer group, no doubt the subculture will be of concern to teachers regardless of whether they are beginners or experienced.

Teachers' socialization subenvironment

Four dimensions of the teachers' socialization environment have been identified, namely; (1) the opportunity to

learn the new role, (2) the encouragement to learn, (3) the reinforcement practices used by the principal, administrators, supervisors and other teachers to modify the new teachers' behaviours, and (4) the authority structure or the extent to which the new teacher controls the instructional procedures and curriculum contents as well as other aspects of the classroom. It is understood, as with the students' socialization environment, that the dimensions included in this study do not necessarily constitute the totality of the possible dimensions.

These four dimensions are derived from social learning theory and therefore parallel those of the student socialization environment. However, one important difference between the acquisition of roles within the child and the learning of roles within adults is recognized, and has been pointed out by Travers and Dillon (1975, p.16) "Children learn roles <u>ascribed</u> to them by the community, but adults learn roles that they wish to <u>achieve</u>." However, it does not necessarily follow from this that adults will be exempt from difficulties during the acquisition period. On the contrary it may be a period fraught with problems particularly where the role to be acquired is inconsistent with the expected behaviours which the adult holds for the situation.

Unfortunately, the problem of role acquisition has been given "relatively little systematic thought" (Travers and Dillon 1975, p.24) which contributes to an inadequate understanding of the concept.

The opportunity to learn

The practice teaching which a student obtains during a one-semester course, and which amounts to little more than two consecutive weeks of teaching under the direction of a cooperating, experienced teacher, is for many beginning teachers the only direct experience with the 'realities' of the new role. A preference for longer, practical training periods is a conclusion which can be gleaned from the literature on this subject. Coupled with this is the notion that attitudes are changing during this period of practical experience (Shipman 1967; Hussell and Smithers 1974). Hussell and Smithers (1974) while following a group of college students who were involved in practice teaching, found that over the six months in which they were in the schools, the student-teachers became significantly less tender-minded. And, in Shipman's (1967) study, following half a year in the school, he found beginning teachers' attitudes turning towards those within the school in which they were teaching and away from college lecturers.

What opportunity exists for the new teacher to learn the new role and the expected attitudes? According to Sarbin and Allen (1968) imitation of behaviours following observation is superior to simply attempting to perform following verbalizations. However, due to the nature of teaching and the consequent isolation and separation of one teacher from another (Lacey 1977) it can be assumed that little opportunity would prevail for the beginning teacher to observe colleagues.

Encouragement to learn

According to Lacey (1977) the new teacher enters his career inadequately prepared to assume the large number of tasks and complex responsibilities which are expected of him. Added to this is the fact that in relation to seniority the beginner occupies the lowest position in the school hierarchy and consequently is oftentimes allocated the most difficult teaching assignments. That new teachers would like to have some free time to plan their work and generally to develop professionally is a point referred to by Bradley and Eggleston (1978).

Encouragement may be of a superficial nature due to the fact that the teacher is basically a loner. Spatial scattering throughout a building, with teachers working in different places at the same time, make it almost

impossible for teachers to observe each other working. And, while administrators and department heads can do so, they seldom do (Dreeben 1973). Therefore the teacher is at a disadvantage when seeking help because no one else, with appropriate experience, can make judgements based on direct observation.

Dreeben (1973) also points out that teachers lack in the tradition of scholarly research and, as well, written communication in the form of work reports is absent. Also, because teachers are generally not directly involved in educational research there may be a tendency to read fewer published articles. Consequently, encouragement to learn through the reading of scholarly reports, which prevails in other professions; for example, law and medicine; seems unlikely.

Reinforcement structure

The important part which reinforcement techniques play in learning theory has been pointed out by such noted authors as Miller and Dollard (1941); Bandura and Walters (1963); Becker(1973); and Williams (1974). The teacher's use of reinforcement can be an invaluable tool in influencing and modifying behaviours, particularly those of problem children. But who reinforces the teacher, particularly for his use of reinforcements relative to the students?

Patterson (1971) suggests that the child's modified behaviour is, in itself, not reinforcing for the teacher. Peck and Tucker (in the Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, 1973) refer to research by Brown, Montgomery, and Barclay carried out in 1969 relating to the effects of reinforcing teacher behaviours. In graphing the rate of positive reinforcement to a deviant boy by two teachers, they found when the psychologist stopped reinforcing the teachers, they in turn dramatically dropped their use of positive reinforcement with the child. Of course the child's behaviour coincided with the teachers' behaviours. Unfortunately, as pointed out by Patterson (1971) little consideration has been attributed to reinforcement for teachers.

How much lack of reinforcement contributes to the problems of beginning teachers and their subsequent retention is unknown, but Redl and Wattenberg (1972) refer to the psychological climate of the school and the satisfaction with faculty association as sources relating to the retention of teachers. The new teacher enters the role with an already established set of personal values as well as job-orientated values. He, no doubt, will have difficulty working to optimum level if he is continually being pressured to change, defend, or suppress these values.

Rudd and Wiseman (in Lacey, 1977) found poor relationships to be one of the major sources of teacher dissatisfaction.

Authority structure

The political environment of the school has been cited by Maden (1975) as an important factor to the success of new teachers. Similarly, affiliation ties play an influential part in the conduct of workers. Teachers are hired to perform certain duties and are subject to superordinates, but according to Dreeben (in Travers, 1973) where the contract is clearly understood the compliance of teachers poses no problem. Unfortunately, new teachers all too often do not know and understand fully the school policies before employment, nor do they have prior experience with the "hidden curriculum" of the new school (Maden 1975). Further, Edward T. Ladd (1965, p.77) points out that the climate set by many school principals is tyrannical and arbitrary with new teachers seldom seen as colleagues but as "people who worked for the principal". This would hardly be an environment conducive to optimal teacher satisfaction.

The effects of teachers' authority on students have been discussed previously, and it can be generally concluded that the most effective atmosphere is one in which students

have some control over decisions which affect them. It might, therefore, be tempting to generalize this to include teachers. However, it has been found, to the contrary, that teachers prefer to have more administrative guidance (Dreeben 1970). This idea was also partially supported by Penney (1977) in a study designed to investigate the influence of participative decision-making on productivity and job satisfaction of high school teachers. According to Penney (1977) the type of activity engaged in by the teacher often determines the desired degree of involvement. Where the teacher feels decisions are part of the administrators' responsibilities it would appear unwise to force participation because the result may be alienation or resentment on the part of the teacher.

Selected Determinants of Problem Variability

Thus far a non-arbitrary classificatory scheme based on social learning theory framework has been provided as a means for categorizing the major problems of the beginning teacher. The focal point of reference is the school environment wherein the socialization of both students and teachers into their respective roles takes place. Having discussed the possible sources of problems within the dimensions of the three socializing environments, it is necessary now to

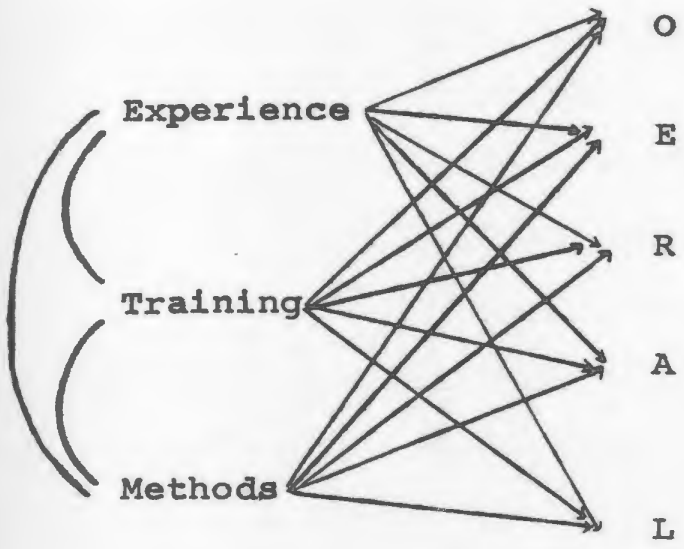
discuss the major selected determinants of the problems, and the extent to which they vary according to the determinants.

It is suggested that three major determinants exists, namely; (1) the amount of experience which the teacher has, (2) the type of pre-service training, and (3) the primary instructional method of the teacher.

It is postulated that all three items affect the students' socialization, both the formal and informal subenvironments. With regard to the teachers' socialization environment, only items (1) and (2) are expected to have an affect. Item (3) instructional method is not assumed to contribute to teachers' problems in being socialized because it takes place within the classroom solely, and is therefore not highly visible to superiors and other teachers. Diagrammatic representation of the connection between the determinants and the dimensions considered in the study is presented in figure 2.3.

Experience

The possibility of games being played by the students within the classroom has been pointed out by Ryan (1970). While recognizing that these games may be at the unconscious level, he nevertheless feels they should be given



O - opportunity to learn

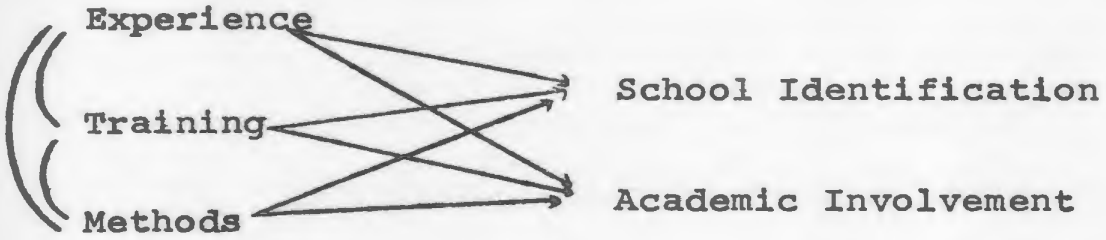
E - encouragement to learn

R - reinforcement

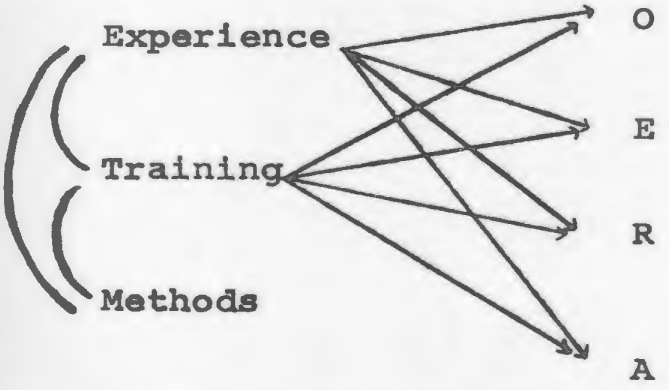
A - authority structure

L - language level of instruction

a. The Student Socialization Model - Formal Environment



b. The Student Socialization Model - Informal Environment



c. The Teacher Socialization Model

Figure 2.3: DIAGRAMMATIC ILLUSTRATION OF THE IMPACT OF DETERMINANTS OF THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

more consideration in research studies. It is his idea that new teachers are the source of adventure for students, who often refuse to cooperate in an effort to manipulate the new teacher. Once the teacher becomes an experienced hand around the school and has survived this period, all adventure is gone from the game and with it many of the problems experienced by new teachers. It is assumed that during the survival period methods or strategies of dealing with the students have been developed by the beginner. Those methods found valuable and practical in attaining the desired goal will be retained and those which hinder the situation will be dropped from the teacher's behaviours. During this difficult period it is not uncommon for the new teacher to feel disheartened because of a lack of support from colleagues. As two authors note

> New teachers, who are confronted with a difficult class, often seem to be regarded by their more experienced counterparts as undergoing a 'baptism of fire', an ordeal which they must undergo alone if they are to emerge as competent teachers.
>
> (Macmillan and Kolvin 1977, p.12-13)

Therefore, it is hypothesized that new teachers will experience more problems per dimension than experienced teachers.

Training

New teachers, sometimes because of relatively short training periods, are not adequately prepared to assume the complex responsibilities of their new role (Lacey 1977). Often added to this is an unusually non-supportive atmosphere within the school (Ladd 1965). For many Newfoundland teachers the only pre-service experience was a two-week teaching practicum in addition to one-half day per week practice during a thirteen week semester.

In an effort to combat some of the problems related to insufficient training periods, internship programmes and/or professional semester programmes have been introduced at teacher training colleges and universities. Presently Memorial University accepts a small, and select number of candidates to train as teachers utilizing an internship programme. Students are minimally in their fourth year of university and spend a full thirteen week period in practice teaching under the guidance of a cooperating teacher and a professional teacher educator. They are fully released from academic courses and it is not uncommon for these students to spend seventy-five per cent of their time taking over regular teaching duties. In addition, interns are required to participate in on-campus workshops and seminars which are held every fifth day during the semester.

A professional semester programme in education is also provided at Memorial University, as well as the traditional student teaching course.

The professional semester students are either in primary or elementary training and enter the school for practical experience as early as their second year of university. These students spend one-half day per week over the entire university year practicing in the schools, following which they engage in a two-week practicum.

In the traditional student teaching course, practical experience is delayed until the latter part of the third year of university, and oftentimes until the fourth or fifth year. Practice time is reduced to a two-week consecutive practicum plus one-half day per week during a thirteen week semester, which amounts to approximately eighty hours of practical experience. Unfortunately, no studies are available comparing the effectiveness of these programmes at Memorial. Minimal research in the general area, however, has been conducted elsewhere, with results supporting longer training periods for student teachers (Shipman 1967; Sheridan and Pyra 1975; Harrison 1976; and Mickelson 1976).

Because internship students spend more time in the school environment learning to cope with the 'realities' of the role, it is hypothesized that they will experience fewer problems per dimension than either professional semester students or regular route students. Further, and

again due to the longer time spent in teaching practice, it is hypothesized that professional semester students will experience fewer problems per dimension than do regular route students.

Methods

Learning is an activity which involves a human agent, often two - a teacher and a student. For this reason Scheffler (1960) suggests that the independent judgement of the student be engaged in at all times. It is also conceivable that where the teacher dominates the classroom it is at the expense of the students' cognitive, conative and affective achievements. It is also conceivable that where achievements are low the problems and frustrations of the teacher will be high since implicit in the teacher's role is that he hold high expectations for the students' accomplishments. In other words, part of the teacher's role is to provide for an environment conducive to the fulfillment of each student's potential. Consequently, when students fail to fulfil this expectation the teacher would have cause to worry.

While it is unlikely that any teacher would rely entirely on one method of teaching, it is not infrequent that a teacher can be placed in a general category, i.e.

of basically favouring one method of teaching over another. Two generally accepted modes of instruction are, (1) the frontal (formal, structured and teacher directed) method, and (2) the activity (informal, unstructured and student centered) method.

In the first mode, while it is understood that the students must be involved in terms of listening and comprehension, from an observational point of view it can be termed a passive orientation method. The activity method, on the other hand, requires more physical activity on the part of the student coupled with intellectual involvement. Controversy exists as to the superiority of one method over another (Nuthall and Snook 1973; Gray and Satterly 1976).

Bennett (1976) in a very controversial study, found students progressed more where the teacher utilized a structured or formal approach to teaching. Rosenshine (1976) in a study of low socio-economic primary students reported similar findings. The opportunity to learn math and reading was positively correlated with classroom control.

However, Anderson and Scott (1978), in attempting to determine if teaching methods were related to the involvement of different types of students, found where two-way communication prevailed small differences in student

involvement existed. The low aptitude, low self concept student was most influenced by differences in teaching methods and was most involved where two-way communication was used by the teacher. The varying attention spans of children and the abilities which children possess to complete tasks are conducive to sporadic disruption. Keeping the attention of students, therefore, is of primary importance to teachers, especially in the lower grades. To do this he will often opt for the frontal method of teaching because it appears to allow for more control of the classroom (Dreeben 1973). If, however, involvement in assigned activities is suggestive of lack of disruptive behaviours then the reverse may be a truism. As Nuthall and Snook (1973) point out

> The traditional teacher finds it hard to tolerate errors and is happier when his teaching leads straight to the one correct solution.
>
> (cited in Travers 1973, p.61)

Since it is likely that teachers using the activity mode of instruction would be more tolerant of error, it is hypothesized that they will encounter less difficulty per dimension than passive oriented teachers.

Summary: Following discussion of a number of selected major determinants of teachers' problems and the idea that variability exists therein, general hypotheses were formulated. These general hypotheses can be disaggregated into more specific hypotheses based on the number of dimensions to be analysed. These can be extracted from the diagram in figure 2.3. Listed below are the three general hypotheses.

H_1 New teachers will experience more problems per dimension than experienced teachers.

H_2 Internship students will experience fewer problems per dimension than either professional semester students or regular route students. Professional semester students will experience fewer problems per dimension than do regular route students.

H_3 Activity oriented teachers will encounter less difficulty per dimension than passive oriented teachers.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It can be concluded from a review of the literature pertaining to the problems of beginning teachers that the bulk of the research is atheoretical and lacking in complexity. The areas of concern are usually chosen by arbitrary means based on what the researcher believes to be problematic. Further, literature focusing on the psychological aspects of the problems of the new teacher quantitatively outweights that of a sociological nature. This remains, even though such respected authors as Dewey (1938) and Bloom (1976) have pointed out the importance of environmental characteristics. For Dewey, as an example, the starting point of discussions was always 'some organism in some environment' indicating the importance of each to the other.

For purposes of this review the literature has been categorized into four areas following the model of classification as put forward for the school environment. They are; (1) literature related to the problems of the beginning teacher in the area of student socialization, (2) literature related to the problems of the beginning teacher in the area of teacher socialization, (3) literature related to the hypotheses of the present study, and (4) other related literature, including that of a psycholog-

ical nature and which cannot be included under the other three headings.

Literature related to the problems of the beginning teacher in the area of student socialization

The students' socialization environment is made up of two subenvironments, namely; the formal, teacher-dominated environment and the informal, peer-dominated environment. The formal environment consists of five possible dimensions: (1) the opportunity to learn, (2) the encouragement to learn, (3) the reinforcement practices used by the teacher, (4) the authority structure, and (5) the language level of instruction. The informal environment consists of two dimensions: (1) student identification with the school, and (2) academic involvement in the school.

The opportunity to learn

Beebe and Fägerlind (1977) evaluated a science programme using the principles of social learning theory as their frame of reference. Their findings indicate that when teachers provide additional opportunities to learn as well as support and encouragement, students are likely to acquire a positive attitude toward science subjects. This positive attitude was further associated with high achievement scores in science.

Results of a study by Husén (1967) indicate a positive relationship exists between participation in special opportunities offered students and achievement.

The encouragement to learn

Williams (1976) while investigating the family environments of children found the amount of encouragement provided by parents to children to be of prime importance to achievement. Too much encouragement can place undue pressure on the child, inhibiting achievement at optimal levels. Regarding expectations to achieve, several studies lend support to the idea that children reach levels in keeping with the expectations which teachers hold for them (Rosenthal and Jacobson 1968; Rist 1970; and Finn 1972).

The reinforcement practices used by the teacher

Learning theorists (Dollard and Miller 1950; Hilgard and Bower 1966) consistently point to the crucial role of reinforcement in the learning process. And, Bloom (1976) states that some form of reinforcement is needed in the process either during or after each part. However, he makes it quite clear that the same type of reinforcement will not necessarily have the same effect on different students. What is perceived as negative feedback by one student may be perceived as positive for another.

In their research on family environments, Williams (1974) and Bijou (1971) attest to the value of reinforcement.

In reviewing studies on teacher praise and student achievement, Rosenshine (1976) concluded a consistent positive relationship exists, but with low correlations.

The authority structure

Ryan (1970, p.177) refers to discipline within the classroom as "the great unmentionable" indicating the inability to maintain control as the most serious contributor to teacher failure.

Schmuck and Schmuck (1975) suggest teachers' leadership to be most effective if they, (1) distribute responsibilities and functions among students, (2) encourage independence, (3) stimulate open communication, and (4) attempt to become attractive to the students. And, in a classical study by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) on the effects of group leadership it was found that the democratic leader who distributed his power throughout the group; drawing on their knowledge; experienced more initiative, friendliness, and responsibility on the part of his students. The children under the supervision of the other two styles of leadership, namely; autocratic and

laissez-faire, tended to be hostile, competitive, irresponsible when left alone; and disorganized, frustrated, and produced at a low level, respectively.

Language level of instruction

Studies by Bulcock and Beebe (1976) and Bulcock (1977) which looked at a variety of achievements in the content area of the school showed language to be the single most important variable.

Student identification with the school

Coleman (1961) suggests that the adolescent peer group is a detrimental factor to students' achievement. On the contrary, research studies by Schafer and Armer (1968); Rehberg (1969); and Spady (1970) support the idea that participation in sports is correlated with achievement. The time lapse of approximately seven years between Coleman's research and the others may have been a factor contributing to the contradictory findings.

Academic involvement in the school

A correlational study by Pascarella and Terenzini (1976) showed that a positive relationship exists between the amount of informal interaction freshman students have with faculty members and students' perceptions of both their academic and non-academic experiences at college.

In these informal interactions were discussions on academic matters. Upon follow-up during the next semester after the study it was found that the rate percentage of leavers among low interactors was nearly twice as high as the percentage among high interactors ($p < .001$). If, as this study indicates, interaction affects attitudes and attrition, then it might follow that where students avoid a new teacher or where the teacher avoids the students, frustration and worries would prevail.

Literature related to the problems of the beginning teacher in the area of teacher socialization

The teachers' socialization environment is made up of four dimensions, namely; (1) the opportunity to learn, (2) the encouragement to learn, (3) the reinforcement structure, and (4) the authority structure.

The opportunity to learn

Sarbin and Allen (1968) have indicated the superiority of learning behaviours through imitation following observation. Lacey (1977) suggests the teacher works in an atmosphere of isolation and separation from other teachers with little possibility for observing colleagues at work. Consequently it may be that new teachers have few opportunities to learn their new role upon entering the school in the capacity of a worker.

The encouragement to learn

Because the teacher is basically a loner, he may be at a disadvantage when seeking help from others based on appropriate experience and direct observation (Dreeben 1973).

When compared to other professionals, such as lawyers and doctors, teachers fall short in terms of involvement in scholarly research and written communication (Dreeben 1973). Therefore, encouragement to learn through the medium of journal articles may be low.

Bradley and Eggleston (1978) conducted a study to determine the effects of three patterns of induction into the teaching profession for probationers. Two experimental groups who were given release periods from teaching duties and a no-release control group were involved. In the experimental groups one was subjected to supervision during release time while the other was not so subjected. In general, support for twenty per cent release time for probationers seems warranted. Professional enrichment was highest for the supervised group, and both experimental groups were well above the control group in development.

The reinforcement structure

Brown, Montogomery, and Barclay (1969) studied the effects of reinforcing teacher behaviours. They found when a psychologist stopped reinforcing the teacher for particular behaviours towards a child, the teacher in turn reduced his positive reinforcement.

The authority structure

The political environment of the school has been cited as a problematic area for new teachers (Maden 1975; Redl and Wattenberg 1972; and Ladd 1965). According to Maden (1975) unclear policies of the school and the 'hidden curriculum', both formal and informal, are sources of difficulties. She has suggested pre-employment visits be arranged as a means to combat some of the problems associated with school policies.

The importance of a healthy psychological atmosphere throughout the school, and particularly satisfactory faculty relationships have been pointed out as crucial to the retention of new teachers (Redl and Wattenberg 1972; Rudd and Wiseman 1962, cited in Lacey 1977).

Surprizingly, however, studies have supported the notion that teachers generally desire to have guidance from administrative people, indicating that teacher autonomy must be approached with caution by superiors in the school (Dreeben 1970; Penney 1977).

[redacted]erature related to the hypotheses of the present study

H_1 New teachers will experience more problems per dimension than experienced teachers.

It is generally taken for granted that new teachers have more problems than their experienced counterparts. Jean Morris lends support to this idea,

> my second year has been nothing like the first. For every one problem I have had this year, I had fifteen or twenty last year.
>
> (cited in Ryan and Cooper 1972, p.20)

Unfortunately, the problems which persisted over time were not given any special attention or reference by the author in the article.

H_2 Internship students will experience fewer problems per dimension than either professional semester students or regular route students. Professional semester students will experience fewer problems per dimension than do regular route students.

In a study by Sheridan and Pyra (1975) on beginning teachers which controlled for teaching time, it was found those who underwent an internship program experienced slightly less difficulty than those from a regular teacher-training background.

Shipman (1967) suggests that longer periods of supervised instruction be given to education students as a means

of enabling beginners to make a smooth transition into the world of work.

In 1974 the Faculty of Education at the University of Victoria, British Columbia introduced an internship program to teachers-in-training. Evaluation reports during the second year of operation suggested it to be worthwhile (Mickelson 1976). A research study was carried out by Harrison (1976) on English teachers and teacher trainees in Quebec. One of his observations to ensure good English teachers was the need for ... "more practice teaching during training;" (Harrison 1976, p.72).

H_3 Activity oriented teachers will encounter less difficulty per dimension than passive oriented teachers.

Research on teaching methods and student achievement is sparce (Rosenshine 1976). As well, it is sparce on teaching methods and the problems of new teachers.

Anderson and Scott (1977) conducted a study on 101 students in grades nine through twelve who were registered in a single suburban high school. They investigated whether particular types of teaching methods were differentially related to the involvement in learning of different types of students. Six types of learners were identified on the basis of their scholastic aptitude and academic self concept: (1) high aptitude/high self concept; (2) high aptitude/low self concept; (3) medium aptitude/

high self concept; (4) medium aptitude/low self concept; (5) low aptitude/high self concept; and (6) low aptitude/low self concept. They found that the low aptitude/low self concept group was the most influenced by differences in teaching methods. But, most pertinent to the immediate study is their finding concerning the "one-way communication" method. High aptitude students were involved in learning at a high level whereas the low aptitude students were not involved at a high level. And, if Bloom (1976) is correct, that involvement is necessary for learning, this would lead to the assumption that the formal or structured method of instruction would be the least effective for those students most in need of the teacher's attention and help. Also, if the low aptitude students are not sufficiently involved in learning to grasp the material it would logically follow that the teacher should experience difficulties in the role due to teaching strategies.

Somewhat contrary to the above findings; a study by Bennett (1976), and a related literature review by Rosenshine (1976) indicate that achievement is greater where the teacher uses a direct, formal mode of instruction, particularly with primary and low socio-economic students.

Literature pertaining to the beginning teacher, including psychological material

While the majority of the following is not directly related to the present study, it is nevertheless being included as general information and to provide the reader with a sample of the psychological literature on beginning teachers.

Self concept and the new teacher

Sheridan and Pyra (1975) found discipline and teaching methods to be the two most significant problem areas for the beginning teacher, and referred to them as primary problems. These were followed by the secondary problems; material resources, evaluation, planning, professional relations, parent relations, and classroom routine. Correlations often as high as the .001 level of significance were established between the self concept of the new teacher and the problems experienced. Using the Adjective Check List as a measurement instrument for characteristics, the new teacher with primary problems is

> anxious, apprehensive, critical of self and others, troubled with peers, tended to be individualistic, and though clever and sharp witted, was headstrong, pleasure seeking, self-centered, and not sufficiently considerate of others.
>
> (Sheridan and Pyra 1975, p.34)

Self-awareness and the new teacher

It is possible that the new teacher is not adequately aware of those aspects of his personality which can contribute to these primary problems as outlined by Sheridan and Pyra (1975) and stated above. It seems there exists a waste of resources because minds have not been sufficiently tapped. Student-teachers have not been helped to develop their own inner lives, and such development of the self would be beneficial (Jersild 1965; Redl and Wattenberg 1972). Both the teacher and students would benefit from this self-awareness; the teacher in terms of coping with difficulties and the students in relation to academic and human growth. The teacher who seeks refuge in the ivory tower of abstract intellectualism is less beneficial to the students than one who can bring the subject matter to life through relating it to every day experiences. Jersild (1965) and Redl and Wattenberg (1972) indicate, however, that before one can understand how abstract literature characters might feel in their circumstances it is necessary that he come to grips with himself, his attitudes and fears; both the negative and the positive. They further feel this self-awareness concept to be basic to the intelligent handling of day-to-day problems.

Uniqueness of the new teacher

Applegate (1977) in studying new teachers found that problems emerged from three sources; (1) the self, (2) other people, and (3) procedural matters. Therefore she concluded that rather than looking at the problems of the new teacher, that each teacher be viewed as unique with a particular set of problems peculiar to him and which stem from specific interactions involving a variety of personalities, values and contexts. But, to follow this suggestion of Applegate would be to limit ourselves to specific situations and to avoid generalities. If in fact problems can be universal, we would not be able to identify those with the further possibility of finding the root cause of them.

Home environment and school environment

Williams (1974) and others (Gewirtz 1969; Schulman 1970; Bloom 1976) have pointed out the lack of research which is theoretically grounded and empirically supported characterizing children's family environments. A review of the literature indicates that this criticism also applies to children's school environments. Yet, the learning process and the socialization process is taking place within both environments. It can well be taken for

granted that how children learn is basically the same both in the home and in the school, only in the latter case a teacher substitutes for the parents.

Studies by Dave (1963) and Wolf (1964), known as the Chicago Studies and which generally followed the theoretical framework pioneered by Bloom (1964), were conducted on children's family environments. Because of these studies some of the void concerning environments have been filled. Their findings lend support to the notion that factors in the environment do influence children's achievement and abilities. As well, Williams (1974) later reanalysed the data collected by Dave (1963) and Wolf (1964) and concluded that evidence does exist to support the theoretical assumptions suggested by social learning theory.

With the exception of the Beebe and Fägerlind (1977) study, an environmental model has not been used to study school characteristics, i.e. school environments of children.

Regarding the environment of the beginning teacher, within and without the classroom, there appears to be no attempt to utilize this theoretical model.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH PROCEDURES

In this chapter the research methodology used in the present study will be discussed. The three main sections comprising the chapter are, (1) the sample, (2) the measurement of the variables, and (3) the type of analysis. Each will be reviewed separately.

The Sample

The School Boards which operate throughout Newfoundland were contacted prior to the opening of schools in September 1978.[1] Each Board was requested to provide a list of inexperienced teachers who would be placed in the schools under its jurisdiction. This list was to include only those teachers who would be in charge of a regular classroom within the primary and elementary grade range. As a means of control, new teachers who would be teaching trainable mentally retarded children, special education classes, or strictly specialist subject areas were excluded. It was assumed that these teachers would have a variety of problems specific to their specialist area and different from those of the general classroom teacher. In determining

---

[1] Excluded from the sample, due mainly to geographical reasons were: Labrador, the extreme West Coast and Northern sections of the island, and those areas accessible only by coastal boat.

the sample reasonable precaution was employed to obtain, as near as possible, a group of new teachers having similar day-to-day teaching responsibilities.

Several factors which were beyond the control of the researcher limited the size of the sample, (1) teacher cutbacks imposed by government, (2) a surplus of unemployed but experienced teachers, (3) often, the new teacher was placed in charge of a special education class. Thirty inexperienced teachers comprised the main sample. A letter was sent to each principal of a school where one of these new teachers was to be employed. The principal was requested to provide, if possible, another teacher similar in sex and teaching at the same level as the inexperienced teacher. The experienced teacher was to have a minimum of three years teaching experience. The latter would then act as a control for the new teacher. A copy of this letter is contained in Appendix A. Twenty-five experienced teachers were included to make a total sample of fifty-five teachers. The inexperienced teachers outnumber the experienced due to the fact that in a few instances there were two new teachers employed in a school but only one experienced teacher. Table I shows the number of males and females included in the sample, a breakdown of the schools by denomination, and the number of experienced and inexperienced teachers.

TABLE I

Number of Males and Females in the sample, a breakdown of the schools, and the number of experienced and inexperienced teachers

	Male	Female
New Teachers	8	22
Experienced Teachers	11	14
	Schools by denomination	
Integrated	11	
Pentecostal	7	
Roman Catholic	5	

In order to determine the problem areas of the new teacher a questionnaire was designed and administered to the teachers following a minimum of six weeks' experience within the teaching role. At the same time the experienced, matching teachers also completed the questionnaire. This occurred during the month of October 1978. A complex measurement problem was contained in the instrument or questionnaire because all the measures of the teaching environment had to be constructed by the researcher, there being no suitable existing measure designed for this. This poses somewhat of a limitation to the study because, despite the rigorous analytic procedures used, the usual procedures for constructing sociological variables could not be followed. Thus, for example, time and the available financial resources precluded the possibility of a pilot study or the construction of an instrument prior to being used on the research sample. Therefore, as an alternative, the researcher had to prepare and administer the final instrument and then employ a method of factor analysis. Items included on the questionnaire, as indicators of the environmental dimensions specified in the theory were entered into a principal component factor analysis. Factor loadings

were used to eliminate singletons, i.e. items that did not load on the factor. In general, items with loadings less than .3 were eliminated. The remaining items were then reanalyzed using the factor score coefficients presented in the tables as weights to construct the environmental composites. The weighting formula:

$$f = W_1((Var - \bar{X})/SD) + W_2((Var - \bar{X})/SD) + W_3 \ldots$$

where f = composite
and W = factor score coefficient

The detailed calculation for the creation of the student opportunity composite is presented here as an example of the procedure.

$$\begin{aligned} SOPPY = {} & .313\ ((X_{21} - 2.06) / .77) + \\ & .295\ ((X_{23} - 2.07) / .79) + \\ & .311\ ((X_{64} - 2.11) / .87) + \\ & .320\ ((X_{104} - 2.51) / .64) + \\ & .364\ ((X_{154} - 2.84) / .94) \end{aligned}$$

Tables 2 through 12 present the basic data used in the computations, including the eigenvalues and the alpha reliability coefficients.

TABLE 2a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Opportunity composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{21}	X_{23}	X_{64}	X_{104}	X_{154}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{21}						2.06	.77
X_{23}	.218					2.07	.79
X_{64}	.273	.256				2.11	.87
X_{104}	.129	.263	.100			2.51	.64
X_{154}	.280	.120	.270	.415		2.84	.94

TABLE 2b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Opportunity composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{21}	.606	.313	.367
X_{23}	.571	.295	.326
X_{64}	.602	.311	.363
X_{104}	.620	.320	.385
X_{154}	.704	.364	.495
Eigenvalue	1.936		
Reliability *	.602		

Variable description: X_{21}, item 1 on teachers' questionnaire; X_{23}, item 2; X_{64}, item 22; X_{104}, item 42; X_{154}, item 66.

* Based on formula 6-18 (Nunnally 1967, p.193)

TABLE 3a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Encouragement composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{25}	X_{27}	X_{70}	X_{157}	X_{160}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{25}						1.51	.54
X_{27}	.422					1.61	.60
X_{70}	.055	.111				3.09	.56
X_{157}	.154	.097	.150			2.85	.83
X_{160}	.301	.083	.157	.176		2.17	.54

TABLE 3b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Encouragement composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{25}	.759	.442	.576
X_{27}	.640	.373	.410
X_{70}	.387	.225	.150
X_{157}	.477	.278	.227
X_{160}	.594	.346	.353
Eigenvalue	1.716		
Reliability	.508		

Variable description: X_{25}, item 3; X_{27}, item 4; X_{70}, item 25; X_{157}, item 67; X_{160}, item 68.

TABLE 4a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Reinforcement composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{29}	X_{31}	X_{74}	X_{110}	X_{112}	X_{163}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{29}							3.20	.76
X_{31}	.317						2.35	.83
X_{74}	.234	.265					2.80	.76
X_{110}	.203	.488	.109				2.83	.95
X_{112}	.216	.077	.384	.184			2.02	.80
X_{163}	.188	.345	.133	.362	.085		3.06	.86

TABLE 4b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Reinforcement composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{29}	.583	.262	.340
X_{31}	.740	.333	.547
X_{74}	.544	.245	.296
X_{110}	.686	.309	.471
X_{112}	.465	.209	.217
X_{163}	.593	.267	.352
Eigenvalue	2.223		
Reliability	.654		

Variable description: X_{29}, item 5; X_{31}, item 6; X_{74}, item 27; X_{110}, item 45; X_{112}, item 46; X_{163}, item 69.

TABLE 5a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Authority composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{33}	X_{76}	X_{78}	X_{114}	X_{117}	X_{169}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{33}							3.38	.53
X_{76}	.295						3.24	.72
X_{78}	-.005	.155					2.44	1.05
X_{114}	.369	.119	.194				2.94	.60
X_{117}	.069	.155	.198	.352			3.22	.69
X_{169}	.297	.283	.063	.329	.169		3.55	.54

TABLE 5b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Authority composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{33}	.624	.303	.389
X_{76}	.559	.271	.312
X_{78}	.349	.170	.122
X_{114}	.724	.352	.524
X_{117}	.532	.258	.283
X_{169}	.655	.318	.428

Eigenvalue 2.060
Reliability .604

Variable description: X_{33}, item 7; X_{76}, item 28; X_{78}, item 29; X_{114}, item 47; X_{117}, item 48; X_{169}, item 71.

TABLE 6a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Language composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{80}	X_{82}	X_{176}	X_{179}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{80}					2.57	.63
X_{82}	.353				1.98	.75
X_{176}	.187	.143			3.07	.75
X_{179}	.149	.048	.634		3.08	.55

TABLE 6b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Language composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{80}	.536	.299	.288
X_{82}	.434	.242	.189
X_{176}	.834	.464	.695
X_{179}	.791	.440	.625
Eigenvalue	1.797		
Reliability	.574		

Variable description: X_{80}, item 30; X_{82}, item 31; X_{176}, item 73; X_{179}, item 74.

TABLE 7a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Identification composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{84}	X_{119}	X_{121}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{84}				2.89	.79
X_{119}	.185			3.05	.68
X_{121}	.498	.396		2.68	.70

TABLE 7b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Identification composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{84}	.750	.433	.562
X_{119}	.654	.377	.428
X_{121}	.862	.497	.743
Eigenvalue	1.733		
Reliability	.628		

Variable description: X_{84}, item 32; X_{119}, item 49; X_{121}, item 50.

TABLE 8a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Student Academic Involvement composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{47}	X_{88}	X_{123}	X_{145}	X_{185}	X_{188}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{47}							2.37	.90
X_{88}	.431						2.74	.87
X_{123}	.244	.103					2.52	.61
X_{145}	.389	.394	.341				3.40	.53
X_{185}	.199	.041	.266	.314			2.25	.94
X_{188}	.347	.461	.141	.342	-.162		2.84	.67

TABLE 8b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Student Academic Inovlvement composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{47}	.715	.293	.511
X_{88}	.682	.279	.465
X_{123}	.497	.203	.247
X_{145}	.754	.309	.568
X_{185}	.450	.184	.203
X_{188}	.668	.274	.447
Eigenvalue	2.441		
Reliability	.674		

Variable description: X_{47}, item 14; X_{88}, item 34; X_{123}, item 51; X_{145}, item 62; X_{185}, item 76; X_{188}, item 77.

TABLE 9a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Teacher Opportunity composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{194}	X_{221}	X_{224}	X_{236}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{194}					1.75	.76
X_{221}	.031				2.55	1.02
X_{224}	.061	.362			2.76	.73
X_{236}	.504	.002	.024		2.36	.87

TABLE 9b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Teacher Opportunity composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{194}	.472	.244	.223
X_{221}	.687	.355	.472
X_{224}	.646	.334	.417
X_{236}	.412	.213	.170
Eigenvalue	1.933		
Reliability	.306		

Variable description: X_{194}, item 79; X_{221}, item 88; X_{224}, item 89; X_{236}, item 93.

TABLE 10a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Teacher Encouragement composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{53}	X_{197}	X_{200}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{53}				2.42	.71
X_{197}	-.018			1.70	.69
X_{200}	.209	.131		1.87	.63

TABLE 10b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Teacher Encouragement composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{53}	.671	.542	.451
X_{197}	.386	.311	.149
X_{200}	.800	.645	.639
Eigenvalue	1.239		
Reliability	.265		

Variable description: X_{53}, item 17; X_{197}, item 80; X_{200}, item 81.

TABLE 11a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Teacher Reinforcement composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{55}	X_{58}	X_{94}	X_{127}	X_{129}	X_{147}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{55}							3.02	.73
X_{58}	.310						2.71	.90
X_{94}	.112	.161					2.98	.74
X_{127}	.294	.102	.228				2.40	.69
X_{129}	.438	.109	.147	.231			2.91	.67
X_{147}	.114	.433	.206	.186	.076		2.30	.90

TABLE 11b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Teacher Reinforcement composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{55}	.689	.334	.474
X_{58}	.616	.299	.380
X_{94}	.478	.232	.228
X_{127}	.577	.279	.332
X_{129}	.578	.280	.334
X_{147}	.560	.272	.314
Eigenvalue	**2.063**		
Reliability	.614		

Variable description: X_{55}, item 18; X_{58}, item 19; X_{94}, item 37; X_{127}, item 53; X_{129}, item 54; X_{147}, item 63.

TABLE 12a

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations for items composing the Teacher Authority composite (N=55)

Variable	X_{60}	X_{62}	X_{100}	X_{131}	X_{203}	X_{227}	$\bar{X}$	SD
X_{60}							3.31	.63
X_{62}	.469						3.15	.78
X_{100}	.356	.357					3.12	.79
X_{131}	.542	.396	.450				3.09	.62
X_{203}	.246	.410	.097	.156			2.25	.74
X_{227}	.262	.388	.353	.046	.060		2.76	.80

TABLE 12b

Factor Analysis of the items comprising the Teacher Authority composite

Item	Loadings on Principal Factor	Factor Score	h^2
X_{60}	.767	.295	.588
X_{62}	.783	.301	.614
X_{100}	.679	.261	.461
X_{131}	.701	.269	.491
X_{203}	.446	.171	.199
X_{227}	.501	.192	.251
Eigenvalue	2.603		
Reliability	.726		

Variable description: X_{60}, item 20; X_{62}, item 21; X_{100}, item 40; X_{131}, item 55; X_{203}, item 82; X_{227}, item 90.

The formula used to calculate the reliability was 6.18 in Nunnally (1967),

$$r_{kk} = \frac{k\,\bar{r}_{ij}}{1+(k-1)\bar{r}_{ij}}$$

where k = no of items,

$\bar{r}_{ij}$ = average correlation among items, and

where the denominator of the formula is the eigenvalue of the matrix.

Measurement of the Variables

A discussion of the measurement of the variables examined in the present study is contained in this section. Eleven dependent variables were examined, namely; (1) student opportunity, (2) student encouragement, (3) student reinforcement, (4) student authority, (5) student language, (6) student identification with the school, (7) student academic involvement, (8) teacher opportunity, (9) teacher encouragement, (10) teacher reinforcement, (11) teacher authority.

Each variable was measured through responses to various items on a questionnaire type of instrument. A copy of this instrument is contained in Appendix B. Responses to column

I were used as the basis for the measurement. Teachers were asked to choose one answer from the four given responses, (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) disagree, (4) strongly disagree. In each case several items were used to measure one variable thereby causing composites to be computed. The preceeding 'b' tables 2 through 12 show these composites and the variables which compose each of them. Table 13, which follows, shows the descriptive statistics for each composite and the questionnaire items used to construct the dependent variables or composites. Regarding the composites, the low reliability scores of some places an important limitation on the study, for example; .265 teacher encouragement, .306 teacher opportunity, .508 student encouragement, and .574 student language. Effectively, the analysis is meaningless where the reliability of the dependent variable is less than .5. Therefore, interpretations relative to these composites with a reliability less than .5 have to be made with extreme caution, being careful to avoid generalizations. Limitations of this sort are not unique to this study. Unsuitable measuring instruments and limited funds are problematic to the researcher and constitute major obstacles in educational research. Nevertheless, four of the eleven composites had marginally reliable scales, and the remaining three could be used with confidence. The reliability for the teacher

TABLE 13

Descriptive Statistics of Major Variables Used in the Study

Dependent* Variable	$\bar{X}$	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness	Variance	N	Missing
Student Opportunity	- .343	1.02	2.17	.581	1.04	50	5
Student Encouragement	-2.731	1.01	2.45	.774	1.02	49	6
Student Reinforcement	- .040	1.02	- .03	.207	1.03	51	4
Student Authority	.019	1.01	- .34	.304	1.02	53	2
Student Language	.002	1.03	1.60	- .854	1.06	50	5
Student ID	.001	1.00	.46	- .017	1.00	53	2
Student Academic Involvement	.121	1.00	.01	.412	1.01	47	8

* See key to teachers' questionnaire for the items which compose each dependent variable (in Appendix B).

Descriptive Statistics (cont'd)

Dependent Variable	$\bar{X}$	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness	Variance	N	Missing
Teacher Opportunity	.014	1.01	- .38	- .003	1.01	52	3
Teacher Encouragement	- .030	1.01	.64	.192	1.03	51	4
Teacher Reinforcement	.004	1.00	.54	- .317	.99	50	5
Teacher Authority	- .005	1.01	4.74	-1.500	1.02	50	5

authority scale was .726, the student academic involvement, .674, and the student reinforcement scale .654, making these three fairly confident dependent variables.

Three independent variables were measured, namely; (1) experience, (2) training, and (3) methods. Each teacher was requested to respond to various items designed to measure these three variables prior to completing the 93-item questionnaire.

Experience

Experience was measured by responses to a question which asked, "How many years of experience as a teacher have you had?". The responses were categorized into beginning teachers or experienced teachers. Experienced teachers were those having three or more years of teaching while the beginners had been selected in advance as having just started their role in September of 1978. Of the twenty-five experienced teachers in the sample the number of teaching years for each ranged from three years to a maximum of twenty years. The average number of years being approximately nine and one-half years.

Training

Training was determined by a question which asked, "In training as a teacher which of the following did you choose (check more than one if necessary)? ___ internship programme, ___ professional semester programme, ___ one

student teaching course, i.e. 2000, 3000, 4000, ___ other (please explain in the space below)". Responses ranged from no training as a teacher whatsoever to internship training. The majority of the responses fell into the category of 'one student teaching course'. Because of this and due to the samll sample size, categories were reordered and collapsed to make the data more normally distributed. Responses to internship and professional semester programmes were then categorized together and referred to as 'intern', while student teaching course and other were collapsed and called 'no intern'.[1] When a response to the category 'other' meant attendance at a teachers' college or similar training as a teacher, which was outside the range of given choices in the question, such training was equivalated to that given at Memorial University and categorized accordingly.

Methods

Several responses were requested as a means of determining the favoured type of teaching method of each teacher. See the copy of the research instrument contained in Appendix B for the entire grouping of responses. Briefly,

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[1] This dichotomy allows for a distinction based on training time. Both the internship and professional semester students would have considerably more supervised training time than would the students who did the 'one student teaching course', referred to in this paper as traditional route students. However, it is recognized that the internship and professional semester courses are separate and distinct, forming different programmes in education, and ideally should be analyzed accordingly.

teachers were asked to, "Please indicate how often you use each of the following in your instruction (one answer for each item)". Responses to such items as textbooks, group work, and lectures ranged from often to rarely. As with the 93 items on the questionnaire a method of factor analysis was employed in order to eliminate those items considered to be poorly measuring the 'methods' variable.

Following the factor analysis procedure a dichotomy of teaching orientation or methods emerged with the 'active' teacher scoring high on a composite comprised of items 4, 5, 7, and 10 out of the 10-item list. The 'passive' teacher had a high score on the items 3, 6, and 8. Items 1, 2, and 9 on this list tended to remain constant and therefore not discriminant of the selected variable.

Type of Analysis

In the absence of a suitable instrument to measure the environmental dimensions of the present study, the researcher had to develop one. In doing so the preferred methods of developing, for example pretesting or running a pilot study, were precluded due to such factors as time and limited funds. Therefore as a substitute a method of factor analysis was used to eliminate those items on the

instrument which remained constant throughout or, rather, did not appear to be good discriminators of the variables. Next, formula 6.18 (Nunnally 1967) was used to determine the reliability score of each dimension or composite. Statistical analysis followed to determine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables.

The eleven dependent variables and two of the three independent variables, namely; experience and teaching orientation, were analyzed by the method of simple regression. Relationships and the size of the relationships are obtainable through this method. The other independent variable, training, was analyzed by the One-way ANOVA process.

Summary: This chapter has included a description of the sample, the measurement of the variables, and the type of analysis used in the present study. Data was collected from thirty beginning teachers and twenty-five experienced teachers employed in twenty-three schools throughout various parts of Newfoundland. Of the three independent variables two, experience and teaching methods, were measured by means of simple linear regression. Training was measured by the One-way ANOVA method.

The findings of the analysis are presented in the next chapter, V.

CHAPTER V

THE FINDINGS

In this chapter the relationships of the three selected determinants to the dimensions of the school are discussed. Following the theoretical model presented in chapter two these determinants will be reviewed under the broad headings, (1) the formal subenvironment, (2) the informal subenvironment, and (3) the teachers' socialization subenvironment. The intercorrelations among the variables will be presented at the beginning of the chapter.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Pearson correlation coefficients among the variables were determined and are presented in Table 14, following. The upper matrix contains the correlations for the entire sample, and the lower matrix contains the correlations for the beginning teachers only. A brief examination of these coefficients in the lower portion indicates that the highest correlation is between 'student academic involvement' and'student opportunity', .681. While it would be expected to find such a correlation between these two variables because they are so interconnected in the classroom, it is not expected that such a discrepancy would exist between

TABLE 14

Intercorrelations Between the Variables[1]

	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6	X_7	X_8	X_9	X_{10}	X_{11}	X_{12}	$\bar{X}$	SD	N
X_1		.250	.187	.000	-.027	.025	.364	-.365	.125	-.012	-.215	.072	- .343	1.02	50
X_2	.398		.355	.206	.164	.322	.213	-.237	-.095	.228	.136	.194	-2.731	1.01	49
X_3	.321	.403		.297	.275	.526	.353	-.345	.011	.543	.056	.307	- .040	1.02	51
X_4	.281	.259	.259		.277	.355	.297	-.113	-.060	.324	.181	.029	.019	1.00	53
X_5	.043	.124	.068	.375		.452	.099	-.163	-.084	.248	.362	.178	.002	1.03	50
X_6	.144	.497	.321	.438	.405		.515	-.113	-.144	.495	.156	.270	.001	1.00	53
X_7	.681	.320	.171	.406	.026	.397		-.056	.137	.397	-.159	.228	.121	1.00	47
X_8	-.327	.058	-.217	-.183	.006	.064	-.151		.032	-.263	-.167	.108	.014	1.00	52
X_9	-.009	-.219	-.030	-.033	-.153	-.368	-.084	.208		-.184	-.245	-.052	-.030	1.01	51
X_{10}	.125	.239	.238	.333	-.142	.395	.380	-.252	-.371		.354	.328	.004	1.00	50
X_{11}	-.313	.060	-.194	.089	.386	.306	-.290	-.255	-.384	.271		-.048	-.005	1.01	50
X_{12}	.275	.431	.337	.212	.102	.355	.502	.155	.015	.420	.000		-.094	.81	50

Intercorrelations Between the Variables[1] (cont'd)

Lower half of matrix			
	$\bar{X}$	SD	N
X_1	- .090	1.11	27
X_2	-2.684	1.07	26
X_3	- .000	.87	27
X_4	.137	1.04	29
X_5	- .186	1.17	26
X_6	.063	1.00	28
X_7	.390	.87	24
X_8	.029	.95	28
X_9	.039	1.09	26
X_{10}	- .174	.94	27
X_{11}	- .095	1.21	26
X_{12}	- .349	.75	25

Variable identifications are: X_1 Student Opportunity; X_2 Student Encouragement; X_3 Student Reinforcement; X_4 Student Authority; X_5 Student Language; X_6 Student Identification with School; X_7 Student Academic Involvement; X_8 Teacher Opportunity; X_9 Teacher Encouragement; X_{10} Teacher Reinforcement; X_{11} Teacher Authority; X_{12} Active Teacher Orientation.

[1] Intercorrelations between the variables for the entire sample are contained in the upper portion of the matrix above the diagonal. Beginning teachers only are in the lower portion.

new teachers and experienced teachers. The correlation for the same two variables in the upper half of the matrix, .364, might cause one to wonder whether the new teachers perceived the situation accurately. It may be that the beginning teachers overestimated the amount of opportunities they provide or overestimated the actual amount of involvement on the part of the students.

Generally, low correlations were found between the variables which make up the 'teacher socialization sub-environment and the variables composing the 'student socialization environment' for beginning teachers, with a range of from .395 to .006. Support for this finding can also be gleaned from a look at the entire sample. This is not surprizing, and is in keeping with the theoretical model presented in chapter two, indicating a discreteness between the two environments. However, one area worth noting was the 'teacher reinforcement dimension' for the entire sample which contradicted this finding. High correlations were found between the two dimensions, student reinforcement (.543) and student identification with the school (.495), and the teacher reinforcement dimension. This may indicate that teachers who themselves felt to be reinforced within their role perceived themselves as passing on reinforcement to their students. Further, where students are being reinforced for their endeavours it would only

seem natural to expect to find students with favourable attitudes towards their school.

Each variable has a varying amount of missing data; however, computations are dependent upon the number of cases available for each of the two variables being correlated. As well, it is important to note that while correlations do provide some understanding on relationships among variables, causation and magnitude of the relationships are not provided.

Analysis of the Basic Model

The formal subenvironment

Five dimensions have been postulated as making up the formal subenvironment, namely; (1) student opportunity to learn, (2) student encouragement to learn, (3) student reinforcement, (4) student authority structure, and (5) the language level of instruction. These are referred to as the dependent variables in the analysis. Three selected determinants, namely; (1) experience, (2) training, (3) teaching methods, are expected to influence these dependent variables, and are therefore referred to as independent variables.

Student Opportunity to learn

Results of a study by Husén (1967) show that a positive relationship exists between participation in special opportunities offered students and achievement. This led to the

question, "Who offers students more opportunities, the new teacher or the experienced teacher?". Present data indicates that the beginning teacher provided more opportunity (Regression coefficient -.328) and is significant at the .01 level. This was established regardless of the type of teaching methods favoured by the teacher. No significant relationship was found between 'opportunity to learn' material and the 'mode of instruction'. p value > .10. The latter finding is somewhat surprizing considering the emphasis in recent times upon close interaction between teacher and student. It appears the most important factor is that students be given sufficient opportunity to learn material. How the teacher chooses to implement this is secondary.

Regarding training, no significant difference was found to exist for beginning teachers whether they had received extensive, supervised training in the internship or professional semester programmes or had entered the profession through some other route. An analysis of the entire sample was not feasible since the majority of those having chosen the internship or professional semester programmes fell into the category of 'beginning teacher'.[1] Until such time as it is possible to adequately evaluate

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[1] These two programmes are relatively new to Newfoundland education students.

the training variable it would be unfair to draw any conclusions, suffice to say that education students appear to be receiving adequate skills regardless of the route chosen. Table 15 shows the structural coefficients for the student opportunity model. One-way ANOVA was the method used to determine if training influenced the dimensions for beginning teachers. See Appendix C for a breakdown of each dependent variable.

Student encouragement to learn

That children achieve at levels in keeping with the expectations which teachers hold for them is a phenomenon widely researched and supported by such reputable authors as Finn (1972), Rist (1970), and Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968). While it is accepted that teachers differ in their philosophies of education and children, very little is known about the kind of teacher who offers most in terms of encouragement to learn. Present findings suggest a relationship which favours the beginning teacher (Regression coefficient -.125) but not at an acceptable level of significance. As well, the activity oriented teacher seemed to be more encouraging to the student (Regression coefficient .234) but, again it was not found to be significant. In terms of the type of training provided, no significant difference was found between those choosing a lengthy programme compared to the more traditional route. Table 16 shows the structural coefficients for the student encouragment model.

TABLE 15

Structural Coefficients for the Student Opportunity Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SOPPY				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.666	.306	2.532	-.328	.01
Active	.222	.190	1.168	.177	n/s*
Regression Constant	.646				
$100R^2$	10.2				

TABLE 16

Structural Coefficients for the Student Encouragement Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SENC				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.250	.319	-.784	-.125	n/s*
Active	.291	.197	1.477	.234	n/s*
Regression Constant	-2.339				
$100R^2$	5.17				

* p value > .10

Student reinforcement

Reinforcement is an integral part of the learning process (Dollard and Miller 1950; Hilgard and Bower 1966; Williams 1974; Bloom 1976). In looking at which teachers appeared to offer more reinforcement to their students it was determined that activity orientated teachers do so, p value $< .01$. This finding was not surprizing considering how important it is to be in tune with the needs of a student at a particular time in order to effectively use reinforcement techniques (Bandura and Walters 1963). This probably means that the more passively orientated teacher is less likely to be sensitive to childrens' needs at specific times and consequently less likely to indulge in proper reinforcement patterns. In terms of experience and its effects on reinforcement, it was found that while favouring the beginning teacher (Regression coefficient -.155), the finding was not significant. Also, no significant difference was found in relation to type of training received by the beginning teacher and student reinforcement. Table 17 shows the structural coefficients for the student reinforcement model.

TABLE 17

Structural Coefficients for the Student Reinforcement Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SREIN				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.314	.302	-1.040	-.155	n/s*
Active	.447	.187	2.390	.357	.01
Regression Constant	.458				
$100R^2$	11.6				

TABLE 18

Structural Coefficients for the Student Authority Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SAUT				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.270	.310	-.871	-.134	n/s*
Active	.173	.192	.901	.014	n/s*
Regression Constant	.413				
$100R^2$	1.70				

* p value > .10

Student authority structure

Maintaining a high degree of authority over subordinates is likely to result in tension and friction (Schmuck and Schmuck 1975). Consequently the more experience one has dealing with subordinates the more likely he is to realize this problematic area and to effectively handle it. This was one of the rare dimensions which showed a significant difference in the type of training received. Those teachers having opted for the internship or professional semester programmes experienced less difficulty with the children in terms of classroom authority than their more traditional counterparts, p value $< .05$. One reason for this may be that the longer period of training, which includes more hours of classroom experience, provided the necesasry experiences for the beginner to realize the causes of friction and to properly control them. Regarding amount of experience, the beginning teachers were inclined to have fewer problems than the more experienced (Regression coefficient -.134), but the finding was not at an acceptable level of significance. Methods used to instruct the class were also found to have no significant relationship to the problems experienced in the classroom authority structure. Table 18 shows the structural coefficients for this model.

The language level of instruction

The focal point which language play in the achievements of children has been researched by Bulcock and Beebe (1976) and Bulcock (1977). The quality of instruction has been given considerable attention by Bloom (1976). It can be concluded that in order for children to learn at optimal levels they must be able to understand what the teacher is communicating to them. This led to the question, "Are children who are being taught by relatively inexperienced teachers at a disadvantage in comparison to those being taught by seasoned teachers?". In terms of problems relating to language, the findings of the present study indicate no significant difference, p value $> .10$. In looking at the passively oriented teacher compared to the more actively oriented, again no significant difference was determined, p value $> .10$. As well, the type of training chosen by the teacher was not found to have any significant relationship to language. Table 19 shows the structural coefficients for the language level model.

The informal subenvironment

Two dimensions have been identified as comprising the informal subenvironment of the school, namely; (1) identification with the school, and (2) the amount of academic involvement engaged in by the students.

TABLE 19

Structural Coefficients for the Language Level of Instruction Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SLANG				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	.310	.321	.966	.151	n/s*
Active	.164	.199	.824	.129	n/s*
Regression Constant	-.433				
$100R^2$	5.21				

TABLE 20

Structural Coefficients for the Student Identification with School Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SIDENT				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.337	.297	-1.135	-.169	n/s*
Active	.400	.184	2.174	.324	.01
Regression Constant	.529				
$100R^2$	9.89				

* p value > .10

Identification with the school

Of the three independent variables assumed to have an influence on students' identity with the school, only teaching methods was found to be significant. Teachers who were more actively oriented reported students as having more favourable attitudes towards the school than did their counterparts who employed more passively oriented methods, p value $< .01$. This was not surprizing, particularly in light of the fact that such teachers also appeared to be more reinforcing to students, p value $< .01$. It would only seem natural that students who are rewarded for their efforts would appear to identify with the values of the school. Table 20 shows the structural coefficients for the identification with the school model.

Student academic involvement

Two of the three independent variables were found to have significant relationships to the academic involvement of students. Beginning teachers perceived their students to be more interested in their studies than did experienced teachers, p value $< .005$. Activity oriented teachers also reported having more academically inclined students than did the passive type teachers, p value $< .01$. Teachers who engage in activities with their students probably are more likely to sense any difficult areas in the curriculum and thus take steps to offset them before they become too problematic for the students. This sensitivity could also work to reduce the problems experienced by the teacher as

well. The finding seems very logical when the total student environment is considered in relation to teaching methods. Teachers who were actively involved with their students were inclined, (1) to be more reinforcing to students, (2) to have students who identified more with the school, and (3) to perceive their students as being more academically inclined, (p values $<.01$). Table 21 shows the structural coefficients for the student academic involvement model.

Teachers' socialization subenvironment

Four dimensions of the teachers' socialization environment have been identified, namely; (1) the opportunity to learn the new role, (2) the encouragement to learn the role, (3) the reinforcement practices used by superiors and other teachers to modify the new teacher's behaviours, and (4) the authority structure. All are expected to be potential areas of concern for the beginning teacher.

The opportunity to learn

Neither experience, teaching methods, nor training had a significant influence on the perceived opportunities to learn. However, it was found that interns were more likely to be unhappy with the opportunities provided than were non-interns, and while it was not acceptable at the .05 level

TABLE 21

Structural Coefficients for the Student Academic Involvement Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: SAINV				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.776	.297	-2.613	-.388	.005
Active	.436	.184	2.370	.352	. 01
Regression Constant	1.291				
$100R^2$	18.77				

TABLE 22

Structural Coefficients for the Teacher Opportunity Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: TOPPY				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.113	.312	-.362	-.057	n/s*
Active	.156	.193	.807	.126	n/s*
Regression Constant	.193				
$100R^2$	1.45				

* p value > .10

of significance it came fairly close with a p value $< .07$. This may mean that interns hold higher expectations for cooperation from their employers and co-workers than do non-interns. Table 22 shows the structural coefficients for the teacher opportunity model.

The encouragement to learn

Encouragement is one of the forces which Benjamin S. Bloom (1964) posits as being used by parents to manipulate children. In paralleling this to the school environment, encouragement becomes a force capable of being employed by superiors to manipulate teachers, particularly the new arrivals. Therefore should a school favour more traditional methods of instruction, i.e. passive oriented as opposed to active oriented, it can encourage those teachers engaging in the preferred method as a means of maintaining it. If encouragement plays the strong role in learning that such noted researchers as Bloom (1964) and Williams (1976) indicate, then activity orientated teachers would be disadvantaged.

In the present study more problems were experienced in the area of encouragement by the more active teachers than were experienced by their passive counterparts, p value $< .025$. In terms of training, interns perceived themselves as receiving less encouragement than non-interns and while the relationship was not found to be significant

at the .05 level, it is worthy of note, p value $<.07$. The possibility exists that commitment and ideals of the profession run higher in those students choosing a longer training period and consequently makes them more perceptive to the particular problem areas than those choosing a regular route of preparation. Years of experience was not found to have any significant relationship to the encouragement dimension. Table 23 shows the structural coefficients for this model.

Reinforcement structure

Only one significant relationship was found in analyzing this dimension. Active teachers reported a more favourable attitude with regards to the reinforcement structure than did the passive teachers, p value $<.05$). This finding was surprizing since the same group did not feel the opportunities to learn the role to be adequate, nor did they report favourable attitudes towards the encouragement to learn. A possible explanation might be that the items used to measure this dimension were not adequate. For example, "New teachers would be frowned upon if they dressed differently than the others", might not have the same effect today as it would have several years ago. Variations in dress seem more tolerated recently and hence reinforcement in this area might be considered negligible. Also, the item, "I would not mind working in this school for the rest of my life", might have been considered by the teachers in

TABLE 23

Structural Coefficients for the Teacher Encouragement Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: TENC				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	-.121	.316	-.382	-.060	n/s*
Active	-.411	.196	-2.097	-.033	.025
Regression Constant			.142		
$100R^2$			.59		

TABLE 24

Structural Coefficients for the Teacher Reinforcement Structure Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: TREIN				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	.200	.300	.667	.101	n/s*
Active	.363	.186	1.952	.295	.05
Regression Constant			-.254		
$100R^2$			11.7		

* p value > .10

relation to the economic situation prevalent in Newfoundland. Very few teachers, new or seasoned, are likely to have a range of choices when seeking employment in the field of education, and projections concerning the future job situation are no brighter.

Experienced teachers felt they were more rewarded for their activities than did beginners (Regression coefficient .101) but the finding was not significant. Regarding type of training, both interns and non-interns experienced difficulties in the area of reinforcement, but again no significant relationship was found between the groups. Table 24 shows the structural coefficients for the reinforcement structure model.

Teacher authority structure

Experience, methods and training were found to have no significant relationships to the problems of teachers in the authority structure. While experienced teachers regarded authority more favourably than beginners, it was not at a significant level. This probably means that the longer one remains in the school the more he becomes a part of the structure and consequently the more accept-ant of it. As might be assumed having analyzed the other dimensions of the teacher socialization environment, passive teachers experienced less difficulty with their superordinates than did the more actively oriented teachers.

While the latter finding was not significant it emerges as an interesting relationship when considering teaching methods as a whole. Table 25 shows the structural coefficients for the teacher authority model.

TABLE 25

Structural Coefficients for the Teacher Authority Model by Ordinary Least Squares Regression: (I) Regression Coefficients, (II) Standard Errors, (III) T-values (I/II), (IV) Standardized Regression Coefficients

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable: TAUT				
	I	II	III	IV	p
Experience	.244	.318	.767	.121	n/s*
Active	-.108	.197	.548	-.086	n/s*
Regression Constant	-.370				
$100R^2$	1.55				

* p value > .10

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions to the present study will be discussed in this chapter under the general headings, (1) Results of hypothesis testing, (2) Perceptions of help, and (3) Summary and recommendations.

Results of hypothesis testing

Three major determinants were expected to influence the formal and informal subenvironments of the students' socialization, namely; experience, training, and instructional methods. Experience and training were expected to have an effect on the socialization of teachers, as well, but instructional methods was not so expected. Teaching style was assumed to be a central part of the classroom with low visibility to co-workers, consequently of no major concern to other teachers and superiors. The impact of the determinants of the problems of beginning teachers is illustrated in figure 2.3.

Experience

H_1 New teachers will experience more problems per dimension than experienced teachers

Eleven dimensions were analyzed in an attempt to determine the relationship between experience and the problems contained therein.

Generally, the hypothesis has been rejected since a level of significance of .05 was not attained. New teachers did not experience more problems than experienced teachers. Overall, they tended to experience fewer problems. Upon disaggregating the hypothesis into eleven separate ones, two significant relationships were found and which favoured the beginner:

1. New teachers experienced fewer problems in the 'student opportunity to learn dimension' than the experienced teachers (p value $< .01$).

2. New teachers had fewer problems in the 'student academic involvement dimension' than their experienced counterparts (p value $< .005$).

In looking at experience and the dimensions in total, it might be that new teachers; because of their relatively short time period in the role; did not perceive the situations realistically. It may be that they reported what they wished the environment resembled. It seems more than a coincidence that both the 'opportunity to learn dimension' and the 'academic involvement dimension' of the student were the ones with significant relationships favouring the new teacher. Seasoned teachers were experiencing more problems here, possibly due to a better understanding of what is required by both teacher and student to complete the year's curriculum requirements.

Not surprizingly, the two dimensions where new teachers reported experiencing problems more so than older teachers were 'teacher reinforcement' and 'teacher authority'. The relatively small sample size may have been a factor contributing to the non-significant findings. The emergence of this association is realistic considering the fact that few new teachers have an opportunity to get adequately acquainted with their prospective employers.

Training

Suggestions to the effect that teachers-in-training engage in longer supervised practicums have been put forth (Shipman 1967; Harrison 1976; and Mickelson 1976). Therefore it was hypothesized that:

H_2 Internship students will experience fewer problems per dimension than either professional semester students or regular route students. Further, professional semester students will experience fewer problems per dimension than do regular route students

Due to sampling problems it was not possible to test this hypothesis as stated. An insufficient number of professional semester students were included in the sample of new teachers. It was therefore decided to combine the professional and internship teachers into one group and to attempt to determine the difference, if any, which

exist between this group (termed 'interns'), and the other beginning teachers falling outside this group (termed 'non-interns'). The revised hypothesis:

$H_2{}^r$ Interns will experience fewer problems per dimension than non-interns

Generally, this hypothesis was rejected. Of the eleven dimensions, ten were found to be unaffected by the training variable. Training was found to significantly influence the 'student authority dimension' only, thus;

Interns experienced fewer problems in the student authority dimension than non-interns (p value $< .05$)

It may be that teachers who have gone through a longer period of training and practice time have worked out most of their difficulties in relation to student-teacher control. The lengthy practical time may have given them opportunities to experience situations in this area and to discuss and explore various means of coping. Consequently, by the time they become responsible for a classroom they are more at ease with children and willing to take into consideration students' desire to have some control over their destinies. Regular route teachers may need more time to develop effective means of handling the attempts of children to control the classroom leader.

Two nearly significant relationships (p value < .07) were found in the teacher socialization environment which appear noteworthy. 'Interns' were experiencing more difficulties in relation to 'opportunities and encouragement to learn' their new role. This may mean that expectations are higher for this group of new teachers as compared to the group of 'non-interns'. A more profound commitment to the profession possibly caused them to choose a lengthy training period, and consequently they may have established slightly higher ideals for their working environment. Because of the small sample size used in this study, caution is suggested in interpreting these findings. In any case, training, regardless of the type chosen, appears to adequately prepare the beginning teacher for his new role in the profession.

Methods of teaching

Two types of teaching style were analyzed to determine if a relationship existed between them and the problems of teachers in each of the environmental dimensions. One type was termed 'passive', the other 'active'. As per figure 2.3, methods were assumed to influence only the students' socialization environment. Teachers' socialization, which takes place mainly outside the classroom and forms a discrete environment, was not expected to be influenced by teaching style.

H_3 **Activity oriented teachers will encounter fewer difficulties per dimension than passive oriented teachers**

In general, this hypothesis is accepted for all the student dimensions, however each was not significant at the .05 level. In all cases, the actively oriented teachers experienced fewer problems. In disaggregating the hypothesis three dimensions were found to show significant results:

1. 'Active' teachers experienced fewer problems in the student reinforcement dimension than did 'passive' teachers (p value $<$ .01).

2. 'Active' teachers experienced fewer problems in the student identification dimension than did 'passive' teachers (p value $<$ .01).

3. 'Active' teachers experienced fewer problems in the student academic involvement dimension than did 'passive' teachers (p value $<$ .01).

Interestingly, while active teaching methods were generally found to be related to fewer problems in regard to socializing students, the same was not found upon analyzing the teachers' socialization environment. As an aftermath the teachers' environment was considered. Of the four dimensions making up this environment, methods influenced two, significantly; 'encouragement to learn' (p value $<$ .025), and 'reinforcement' (p value $<$ .05).

Active teachers were likely to be happy with the 'reinforcement to learn' (p value $< .05$), but they did not perceive the 'encouragement' as adequate (p value $< .025$). As well they experienced more problems within the hierarchy than did passive teachers, although not significantly. However, the non-significant findings become important when considering the total environment. As the present sample indicates, while passive teachers may experience more problems in the classroom and among students, they have fewer problems with their peers and superiors than do active teachers. The implications of this finding are in relation to the following. Poor relationships with faculty were found to be a major source of teacher dissatisfaction and retention (Redl and Wattenberg, in Cooper 1972; and Wiseman, 1962 in Lacey 1977). If problems are an indication of poor relationships, it may be that 'active' teachers have a higher dropout rate in the teaching force than teachers who prefer more traditional methods of instruction. Further research is, therefore, recommended in this area.

Perceptions of help

The findings of the present study, as reported in Chapter V, lend support to the notion that new teachers experience no more difficulties in the teaching role than experienced teachers. In fact, in some areas of the school environment, for example; student opportunity to learn, and student academic involvement, the beginner may

be having fewer problems. The explanation for this somewhat surprizing finding, which is contrary to the assumption which would be gleaned from a literature review on the subject, may lie in an understanding about where help is available to the new teacher. If other persons in the school environment help the newcomer to adjust it should follow that difficulties would be minimized. An attempt was made in the present research to explore this area.

Twenty-nine items contained in the questionnaire (items 65 to 93 inclusive) were considered to be indicative of problem matters with which the beginner should be able to seek help if desired. For these items a separate section, column III on the questionnaire, was included indicating four choices of response: (1) principal or vice-principal, (2) education courses, (3) other teachers, and (4) no help. Teachers were asked to indicate which of these responses were found to be most helpful in each case. A popular choice was 'no help', particularly in relation to the student socialization environment. For example, in five instances sixty per cent or more of the beginning teachers reported 'no help'. The frequency distribution showing the percentage rates of response for each item is contained in Appendix D.

When beginning teachers did seek help with student related problems it was usually from 'other teachers'.

In the area of teacher socialization, teachers indicated receiving more help from the principal or vice-principal and other teachers than they did in the student environment. For example, item 80 which forms part of the 'teacher encouragement dimension', showed 73.3 per cent responding in favour of the principal. In the 'teacher opportunity dimension' which included items 78, 79, 92, and 93, help was frequently perceived to be available.

Overall, lower frequencies were reported for 'education courses' in terms of perceived help. However, this is only to be expected since generally the teacher has completed such courses prior to entering the employment field. More immediate sources of help would likely be available and taken advantage of once the role is assumed. In reviewing those items directly related to the curriculum and evaluation of students, for example; items 65, 70, 82, and 87, a large percentage of the sample favoured 'education courses' as a means of help with problem matters. The respective percentage rates of response for these four items were 30, 26.7, 20, and 33.3.

The discrepancy between the two environments, i.e. student and teacher environments, regarding the amount or

source of help available to cope with difficulties may be realistic and understandable. Teachers may feel more free to discuss problems and frustrations related to themselves, directly, and their career opportunities, as this may not cast any shadows on their abilities as teachers. On the contrary, to show such an interest in these matters may place them in a more favourable light with superiors. Unfortunately, to admit to difficulties with students may be a threatening situation for some teachers, particularly beginning teachers. His capabilities as a teacher may come into question and at a very crucial time when he is trying to make a good impression.

An alternative interpretation specific to the findings of the immediate study is reasonable when the education of the beginner as compared to that of the experienced teacher is taken into consideration. Ninety per cent of the new teachers in the sample had at least one degree whereas only forty-eight per cent of the experienced teachers had this minimum. Because of their more years of study, new teachers probably did not see a great need to seek help in coping with their new role. Further research of a more precise nature in the area of teachers' perceptions of help may prove valuable in the training of students for teaching.

Summary and Recommendations

This study was designed to (1) compare the problems of beginning teachers with those of experienced teachers, (2) determine whether type of training was related to the problems of the beginning teacher, and (3) measure the relationship between teaching style and problems. Included also, in the present research, was a section designed to measure, in an exploratory manner, where beginning teachers seek help to alleviate their problems.

Following social learning theory as put forth by Bloom and others, the school environment was subdivided into three major socializing environments, (1) students' formal sub-environment, (2) students' informal subenvironment, and (3) teachers' environment. This provided a means for classifying the problems of new teachers in a non-arbitrary manner.

The results of the study support the idea that two discrete environments operate within the school as suggested in the basic model illustrated in figure 2.1.

Teachers using an activity oriented mode of instruction were compared with teachers using a more passive oriented mode. In general terms, the 'active' teacher experienced fewer problems in the students' environment than the 'passive' teacher, but in the teachers' environment the reverse was the case. Therefore, it is suggested that further research be conducted to see if a relationship exists between 'active' teachers and retention in the profession.

Generally, new teachers experienced fewer problems than experienced teachers. This finding, which was contrary to that reported in related literature, may be due to naivity on the part of the inexperienced teachers. Responses were based on approximately six weeks of experience within the teaching role, a time period which may have been inadequate to accurately perceive the situation. Therefore, it is recommended that a future study be carried out when the teachers have had more time to assess their environments. It might be interesting and valuable to see if there is a difference in responses when a longer time period has elapsed. Only in this way can it be determined effectively how difficult the first year of teaching is for the beginner. Also, research conducted at various stages during the first year could reveal if there are peak periods of difficulty and, if so, the specific areas. And, by looking at where the teachers seek help, suggestions could be made to significant others who could be prepared to handle such difficulties.

Caution is suggested in drawing conclusions about training. Due to the fact that the internship and professional semester programmes are relatively new to Newfoundland, it is difficult to obtain a sample of teachers with a sufficient number of representatives with diversified training. At present, as with this study, it is likely that any sample

would be disproportionately comprised of teachers having chosen a regular or traditional training route. While findings in the present study suggest teachers to be adequately trained to cope with their new role, it is recommended that evaluation of training be undertaken at a more appropriate time when comparisons could be made among various training routes.

Regarding the instrument used to collect the data, there seems to be a need for further refinement, particularly in the following dimensions, teacher encouragement and teacher opportunity. With respect to measurement reliability the coefficient alphas for these dimensions were .265 and .306 respectively. Reliability as low as these render related analysis meaningless. For example, it is possible the scales did not adequately measure the problems of the new teachers in these two areas, both of which were important in drawing conclusions about teaching style and the problems experienced in the teachers' socialization environment.

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APPENDIX A

Copy of letter sent to
school principals

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada A1C 5S7

Department of Educational Foundations

Telex: 016-4101
Telephone: (709) 753-1200

October _____, 1978

_____
_____
_____

Attention: Principal

Dear Sir/Madam:

Re: Beginning Teachers Study

As principal researcher on The Beginning Teacher Project I have contacted _____ who has kindly given me the name of ___ beginning teacher in your school, _____.

It is desirable that I meet the beginning teachers early in the school year and for this reason I wish to visit your school on October _____.

The study design necessitates matching each beginning teacher with an experienced teacher (three years or more of teaching experience) of the same sex who is teaching the same grade, or a similar grade. It is anticipated that my meeting with the teachers concerned will only take a few minutes of their valuable time. If you wish further information about this project I will be pleased to discuss it with you on _____.

Dr. O. Tucker of the Student Teaching Division at Memorial University and Mr. J. Bulcock of the Foundations Department are the research supervisors. It is hopeful that the findings of the study will be useful to principals and administrators in their day-to-day dealings with the new teachers who are settling into the school system.

Thank you for your interest and cooperation.

Sincerely,

_____
Elizabeth M. Parrell

/ep

APPENDIX B

Copy of the research questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE KEY

DIMENSIONS	ITEM ON QUESTIONNAIRE
STUDENTS' SOCIALIZATION - Formal	
D_1 opportunity	1, 2, 22, 23, 41, 42, 57, 58, 65, 66, 83, 84.
D_2 encouragement	3, 4, 24, 25, 43, 44, 59, 67, 68.
D_3 reinforcement	5, 6, 26, 27, 45, 46, 69, 70.
D_4 authority	7, 8, 28, 29, 47, 48, 71, 72, 85, 86.
D_5 language	9,10, 30, 31, 73, 74, 87.
STUDENTS' SOCIALIZATION - informal	
D_1 identification with school	11,12, 32, 33, 49, 50, 60, 75.
D_2 academic involvement	13,14, 34, 35, 51, 52, 61, 62, 64, 76, 77.
TEACHERS' SOCIALIZATION	
D_1 opportunity	15,78, 79, 88, 89, 92, 93.
D_2 encouragement	16,17, 36, 80, 81.
D_3 reinforcement	18,19, 37, 38, 53, 54, 63.
D_4 authority	20,21, 39, 40, 55, 56, 82, 90, 91.

The following information is required in order to test the statistical adequacy of the sample. The questionnaire will not be identified with your name in any way; all responses are completely confidential.

Name: _____

Sex: male _____ female _____

Marital Status: single, never married _____

married _____

How many years of experience as a teacher have you had? _____

How long have you been a teacher in this school? _____

Which grade do you teach? _____

What is the highest college degree you hold? _____

In training as a teacher which of the following did you choose (check more than one if necessary)?

_____ internship programme

_____ professional semester programme

_____ one student teaching course, i.e. 2000
3000
4000

_____ other (please explain in the space below)

Please indicate how often you use each of the following in your instruction (one answer for each item).

No.	ITEMS	A. Often	B. Sometimes	C. Rarely
1.	Textbooks			
2.	Printed Work Sheets			
3.	Individualized Instruction for Remedial purposes in Language Arts, Reading, Math.			
4.	Small Group Work			
5.	Audio-visual materials (eg. television, films, video, etc.)			
6.	Non-remedial, one-to-one instruction			
7.	Field trips and special projects			
8.	Questioning			
9.	Discussion			
10.	Lectures (i.e. whole class instruction			

The following questionnaire contains 93 items.

Nos. I to 64 require <u>two</u> responses to each item.

Response I will indicate whether you agree to same,

Response II will indicate how important this matter is to you.

Nos. 65 to 93 require <u>three</u> responses to each item.

Response I will indicate whether you agree to same,

Response II will indicate how important this matter is to you,

Response III will indicate where you received the most help with such matters.

<u>ALL RESPONSES ARE COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT BE IDENTIFIED WITH YOUR NAME IN ANY WAY</u>.

	I	II
	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Importa 2 Fairly Impor 3 Slight Impor 4 Unimportant
1. There is not enough time available to cover the prescribed curriculum.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
2. The students in my class are given sufficient time to work on their own projects.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
3. Students are given assistance to acquire mastery of standard English.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
4. I like to attend functions that my students are participating in.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
5. I have a difficult time getting students involved in activities which have no 'marks' attached to them.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
6. Some form of punishment is necessary to keep the noise level down within the classroom.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
7. The students' attitudes toward me as a teacher seem to be positive.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
8. Students do not seem to be able to handle responsibility.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
9. Within the classroom <u>discussion</u> is secondary to <u>writing</u>.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
10. Some of the lessons I teach seem too complicated for my pupils.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
11. The students here are interested in extra-curricular activities.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
12. There appears to be a high degree of loyalty towards the school.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
13. Children here use their free time in study activities.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
14. Grades seem to be most important to the students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
15. Teachers here are <u>expected</u> to attend local N.T.A. meetings.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
16. Teachers here have the opportunity to introduce innovative teaching methods.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
17. New teachers are expected to perform as well as experienced teachers.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
18. Controversial opinions are generally frowned upon during faculty meetings.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
19. I would not mind working in this school for the rest of my life.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
20. Teachers and administrators work together on areas which are causing problems or concerns	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
21. New teachers are informed about matters which affect them.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
22. Little time is available for individual tutoring outside the regular class schedule.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
23. My classes are too large for me to provide individualized instruction.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
24. I arrange visits to places of interest.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
25. I advise my students about books, television programmes and magazine articles which might be of interest to them.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
26. My students really worry when they have done something wrong.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
27. I never tolerate students who interrupt my lessons.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
28. Students' attitudes towards the school, in general, seem fairly good.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
29. Students have very little say in matters affecting the dress code.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
30. Students' use of standard English is satisfactory.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
31. Teachers here have to make their explanations as simple as possible.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
32. Students here can hardly wait for the last bell.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
33. Students are very reluctant to engage in activities such as singing, play-acting.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
34. Bright, academic students seem to be more popular than those not so inclined to intellectual activities.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
35. Students seldom get together on their own time to talk about things they have learned in class.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
36. In this school it is <u>not</u> difficult to get to know the other teachers.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
37. Praise is offered for the showing of initiative and self-generated activities.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
38. I get along with the other teachers here.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
39. Teachers have a say in the method of discipline used in the classroom.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
40. New teachers are encouraged to voice their opinions in faculty meetings.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
41. I provide class time to discuss student problems even though the problems may be unrelated to the course content.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
42. My students are well prepared to meet the standards expected for the grade level I teach.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
43. Students don't really know what is going on in the school outside their own classes.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
44. Students appreciate the educational facilities that are provided.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import 3 Slight Import 4 Unimportant
45. Students who repeatedly refuse to cooperate may have to receive physical punishment.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
46. Educational attainment is rewarded with the use of tokens, eg. gold stars, honour roll, prizes.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
47. Students' opinions are sought on such matters as projects, homework, and assignments.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
48. I make a special effort to talk to my students outside the regularly scheduled class periods.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
49. Students do just enough work on their assignments to 'pass'.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
50. In general, students seem apathetic over issues which I think should concern them.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
51. On their assignments many students include material which is <u>not</u> included in their textbook.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
52. It is difficult for me to get students interested in learning for its own sake.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
53. New teachers are respected if they accept the ways that things are done in this school.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
54. New teachers would be frowned upon if they dressed differently than the others.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
55. Experienced teachers have too much to say in decision making areas.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
56. The teacher is involved in the evaluation of his performance as a teacher.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
57. The speed that topics have to be covered in mathematics is too fast for many students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
58. When students have problems of an interpersonal nature we often discuss them during class time, eg. problems between student and teachers; student vs. student problems.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
59. Students are encouraged to initiate tasks on their own and to follow them through to completion.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
60. Students appear enthusiastic over school fund-raising projects.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
61. Very few students here would be interested in a field trip to an art museum.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant
62. A student who is interested in art or music is likely to be regarded as a little odd by other students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
63. One of the worst things for a new teacher is to have a noisy classroom.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
64. Teachers here require that students work at home on problems which they cannot solve in class.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	I	II	III
	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant	1 Principal or Vice-principal 2 Education cours 3 Other teachers 4 No help
65. Even though some course topics are carefully taught some students fail to learn them.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
66. The library in my school is quite adequate for the students' purposes.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
67. It seems a waste of time to try to get some students to work harder.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
68. Though I try to get students to do better work some are not even interested.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
69. Physical punishment (eg. 'slapping') is often more effective than 'psychological' punishment.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
70. Because pupil abilities vary so much it is often difficult to assign a fair grade.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
71. It is difficult to get to know the students in this classroom.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
72. I have about as much rapport with my students as my colleagues have with the same students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly A. 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly D.	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant	1 Principal or Vice-principal 2 Education cours 3 Other teachers 4 No help
73. I experience some difficulty understanding the dialect of the children.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
74. The use of colloquialism among the children makes my teaching difficult.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
75. A variety of activities are available outside regular class time.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
76. Students here are encouraged to take courses in art and music.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
77. Many of the students don't do much except go to classes and study.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
78. Professional education is encouraged at this school, eg. attendance at work shops, lectures, etc.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
79. In this school the beginning teachers receive help from the experienced teachers.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant	1 Principal or Vice-principal 2 Education cours 3 Other teachers 4 No help
80. New teachers have the opportunity to discuss their problems with the principal.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
81. New teachers are invited to participate in professional growth activities, <u>when they are being subsidized by the school or school board</u>.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
82. Course content, textbooks, and methods of instruction are fully discussed with the teacher of the course.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
83. Instructional materials are available to my students outside regular classroom hours.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
84. The materials available for students with special problems are in short supply.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
85. Students often try to find out how much the teacher will put up with.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
86. I would prefer to give students more say than is often the case in school.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
87. Students seem to have some difficulty understanding what I am teaching.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

	1 Strongly Agree 2 Agree 3 Disagree 4 Strongly Disagree	1 Very Important 2 Fairly Import. 3 Slight Import. 4 Unimportant	1 Principal or Vice-principal 2 Education courses 3 Other teachers 4 No help
88. My school subscribes to several professional journals.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
89. The amount of time available for personal professional growth is adequate.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
90. Teachers are involved in the policies affecting the subjects being taught.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
91. Classroom teachers do <u>not</u> have the final say on the promotion of students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
92. The school financially subsidizes attendance at activities designed for professional growth.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
93. Learning from experienced teachers is encouraged at this school, eg. being invited to observe in another teacher's classroom.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

APPENDIX C

One-way ANOVA: Impact of Training on Two Groups of Beginning Teachers - Interns and Non-interns

One-way ANOVA: Impact of Training on Two Groups of Beginning Teachers - Interns and Non-interns

Between Groups	Sum of Squares	$\bar{X}^2$	F	Sig.	N	Missing
	Dependent Variable: Student Opportunity					
	.012	.012	.009	n/s	27	3
	Dependent Variable: Student Encouragement					
	1.747	1.747	1.549	n/s	26	4
	Dependent Variable: Student Reinforcement					
	.591	.591	.769	n/s	27	3
	Dependent Variable: Student Authority					
	3.873	3.873	3.996	.05	29	1
	Dependent Variable: Student Language					
	.774	.774	.560	n/s	26	4
	Dependent Variable: Student ID with School					
	.289	.289	.280	n/s	28	2
	Dependent Variable: Student Academic Involvement					
	.152	.152	.193	n/s	24	6
	Dependent Variable: Teacher Opportunity					
	2.792	2.792	3.328	n/s*	28	2
	Dependent Variable: Teacher Encouragement					
	3.732	3.732	3.443	n/s*	26	4

* the .05 level of significance was not reached, but it was significant at the .07 level.

One-way ANOVA: Impact of Training (cont'd)

Between Groups	Sum of Squares	$\bar{X}^2$	F	Sig.	N	Missing
	Dependent Variable: Teacher Reinforcement					
	.002	.002	.002	n/s	27	3
	Dependent Variable: Teacher Authority					
	2.912	2.912	2.072	n/s	26	4

APPENDIX D

Frequency Distribution

Beginning Teachers Perceptions of Help
(N=30)

Beginning Teachers Perceptions of Help
(N=30)

	Item	1	2	3	4	% Missing
65.	Even though some course topics are carefully taught some students fail to learn them.	6.7%	30.0%	46.7%	13.3%	3.3%
66.	The library in my school is quite adequate for the students' purposes.	30.0	13.3	6.7	43.3	6.7
67.	It seems a waste of time to try to get some students to work harder.	16.7	16.7	36.7	23.3	6.7
68.	Though I try to get students to do better work some are not even interested.	20.0	16.7	36.7	26.7	-
69.	Physical punishment (eg. 'slapping') is often more effective than 'psychological' punishment.	23.3	16.7	20.0	30.0	10.0
70.	Because pupil abilities vary so much it is often difficult to assign a fair grade.	16.7	26.7	26.7	23.3	6.7
71.	It is difficult to get to know the students in this classroom	6.7	6.7	26.7	60.0	-
72.	I have about as much rapport with my students as my colleagues have with the same students.	6.7	6.7	26.7	53.3	6.7

Beginning Teachers Perceptions of Help (N=30) (cont'd)

	Item	1	2	3	4	% Missing
73.	I experience some difficulty understanding the dialect of the children.	6.7	6.7	16.7	66.7	3.3
74.	The use of colloquialism among the children makes my teaching difficult.	3.3	6.7	23.3	60.0	6.7
75.	A variety of activities are available outside regular class time.	6.7	13.3	30.0	43.3	6.7
76.	Students here are encouraged to take courses in art and music.	13.3	16.7	20.0	36.7	13.3
77.	Many of the students don't do much except go to classes and study.	10.0	10.0	6.7	60.0	13.3
78.	Professional education is encouraged at this school, eg. attendance at work shops, lectures, etc.	43.3	6.7	20.0	23.3	6.7
79.	In this school the beginning teachers receive help from the experienced teachers.	23.3	3.3	53.3	13.3	6.7
80.	New teachers have the opportunity to discuss their problems with the principal.	73.3	3.3	6.7	10.0	6.7

Beginning Teachers Perceptions of Help (N=30) (cont'd)

Item	1	2	3	4	% Missing
81. New teachers are invited to participate in professional growth activities, when they are being subsidized by the school or school board.	40.0	10.0	16.7	23.3	10.0
82. Course content, textbooks, and methods of instruction are fully discussed with the teacher of the course.	13.3	20.0	30.0	30.0	6.7
83. Instructional materials are available to my students outside regular classroom hours.	13.3	10.0	13.3	60.0	3.3
84. The materials available for students with special problems are in short supply.	13.3	13.3	43.3	20.0	10.0
85. Students often try to find out how much the teacher will put up with.	16.7	6.7	30.0	46.7	-
86. I would prefer to give students more say than is often the case in school.	16.7	13.3	20.0	40.0	10.0
87. Students seem to have some difficulty understanding what I am teaching.	6.7	33.3	26.7	30.0	3.3

Beginning Teachers Perceptions of Help (N=30) (cont'd)

Item	1	2	3	4	% Missing
88. My school subscribes to several professional journals.	30.0	13.3	16.7	36.7	3.3
89. The amount of time available for personal professional growth is adequate.	13.3	16.7	20.0	43.3	6.7
90. Teachers are involved in the policies affecting the subjects being taught.	23.3	3.3	23.3	40.0	10.0
91. Classroom teachers do not have the final say on the promotion of students.	33.3	6.7	23.3	20.0	16.7
92. The school financially subsidizes attendance at activities designed for professional growth.	40.0	10.0	6.7	36.7	6.7
93. Learning from experienced teachers is encouraged at this schools, eg. being invited to observe in another teacher's classroom.	6.7	10.0	46.7	36.7	-

Item = as per item on questionnaire (See Appendix B)

1 = Principal or Vice-principal

2 = Education courses

3 = Other teachers

4 = No help